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## OFFICERS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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## REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

### THE IMMENSITY OF LONDON.\*

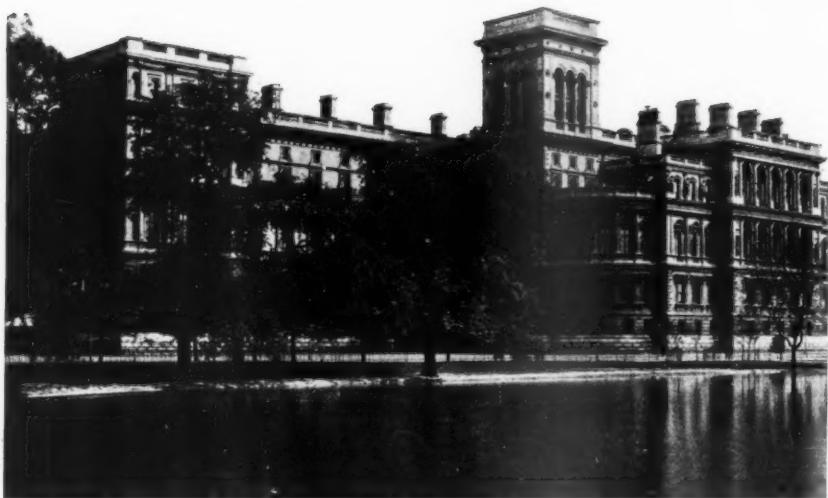
BY JOHN GENNINGS.



THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

IN his last great work Émile Zola frequently raves about what he terms "the immensity" of Paris. The main action of the story takes place in a house on the summit of Montmartre, close to the great Church of the Sacred Heart, from which one obtains a truly superb view of the glorious city far below. I have often looked upon that fair scene, and I have attempted to describe it, but, somehow, it has never occurred to me to regard it from the point of view of its unlimited extension. Here, in my house on the top of a hill higher than Montmartre, from my study window, I gaze down upon London, and the thing which strikes me with irresistible force is the immensity of the panorama—immensity of area, of population, of wealth,

\*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.



THE FOREIGN OFFICE, FROM ST. JAMES' PARK.

of poverty, of joy, of suffering. If mortal eye could take in the vast whole at one glance, which is impossible, it would see three thousand miles of streets and six millions of people. It would see property of such stupendous value that the insured portion of it alone is valued at \$4,294,497,045, while something like \$6,500,000 are spent every year in protecting it against the criminal classes, of whom nearly 150,000 members yearly come before the courts of justice. It would see an area of 121 square miles, wherein at any given moment may be seen 13,000 lunatics, 6,000 imbeciles, and 105,000 paupers, all maintained at the public expense, and wherein every year 136,000 children are born and more than 80,000 persons die. These are some of the figures which ought to bring home to the minds of my readers that which I wish to implant in them—the material immensity of London, the imperial city which is twice the size and has double the population of Greater New York. Compared with New York London has twice as many policemen, four times as many children under education in the public schools, more public libraries, and nearly four times as many habitual paupers.

London is in sober truth a mighty city, and it is an unwieldy monster withal. Until ten years ago it had no municipal life properly so-called. It was governed, save for one tiny portion of it, in haphazard fashion, and even at this moment it could learn much from New York. Thanks to the opposition of the imperial Parliament and government, London is not allowed to furnish its citizens with either gas or water, and every right which it enjoys has been wrung from a jealous and reluctant House of Commons.

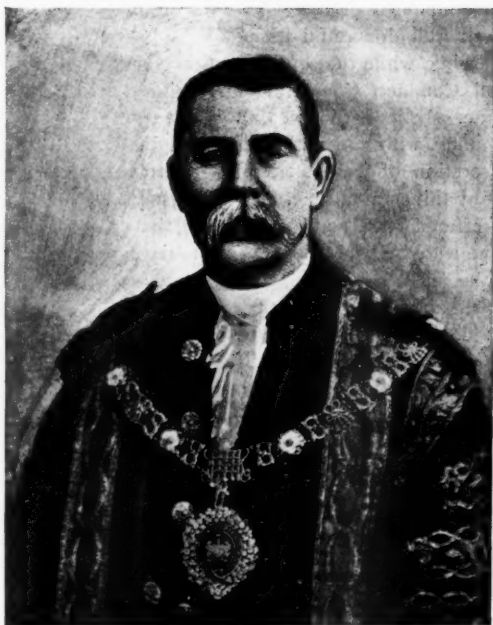
In 1888 the chief governing body of London was the Metropolitan Board of Works, the members of which were elected by local bodies known as "vestries," in whom were vested such purely local work



THE CARLTON CLUB.

as street-cleaning and the like. It was a cumbersome system, leading inevitably to financial corruption and various forms of maladministration. Ten years ago the exposure of scandals in connection with the Metropolitan Board of Works compelled the then Conservative cabinet to grapple with the difficult problem of London government. The result, in brief, was the passing by Parliament of a bill constituting the London County Council, to which body was entrusted the government of the whole of the vast metropolitan area, with the anomalous exception of that one square mile of ground which is known as the "City of London" to the confusion of even the most intelligent of foreigners. The average foreigner when he reads of "the Lord Mayor and Corporation of the City of London" naturally supposes that they are the governors of the metropolis as a whole and the freely elected representatives of its citizens. The fact is that, despite his high-sounding title, the lord mayor rules over only one square mile of London. But what a square mile it is! It contains the Bank of England, the headquarters of all the banking, financial, and assurance corporations, the mint, the stock and produce exchanges, and London's only cathedral. It is the center of nearly every trade and industry in the British Empire, and the financial heart of the world. It is beyond comparison the richest square mile of territory in the universe. The rental value of the land upon which its buildings stand is estimated at over \$30,000,000 a year, and the vaults and strong rooms of its banks never at any given moment contain less than \$400,000,000 worth of specie.

The government of the city of London is a limited democracy, regulated by charters granted by various kings and queens, the first of the series being rather more than seven hundred years old. The general body of citizens elect the Common Council,



COL. HORATIO D. DAVIES, M. P.  
Lord Mayor of London.

the councilors elect the aldermen by open voting at the polls, and they choose a lord mayor every year by show of hands in general assembly in Guildhall, subject to the veto, rarely exercised, of the court of aldermen. In days gone by the lord mayor, aldermen, and common councilors of the city of London defended their privileges against kings and nobles, either by sword or by purse. In these modern days they have strenuously opposed every reform which seemed calculated to improve the government of that Greater London which has been growing around them with ever-increasing rapidity and virility. Their opposition was uniformly successful until ten years ago, and even when the County Council was created for the government of Greater London the city persuaded Parliament to exempt its square mile from the control of the new body. Thus we have the anomaly of a dual system of government in the capital of the British Empire. This state of things cannot last much longer, for the County Council has gained

the confidence of the people for good work well done, and its power is increasing, while that of the lord mayor and Common Council is on the decline. In its earlier years the County Council, with the enthusiasm and indiscretion of youth, tried to do too many things at a time, and needlessly interfered with matters which at that time were best left alone. But to-day, while still conserving the generous spirit and lofty ideals of early manhood, it possesses the wisdom and tact of middle age.

The County Council electorate consists of occupiers of dwelling-houses or tenements irrespective of rated value, and of offices or business premises rated at not less than fifty dollars annual value. Women who occupy houses in their own right and members of the House of Lords, both classes debarred by statute from the parliamentary franchise, can vote for county councilors. The elections are conducted on the principle of one man one vote. No man can vote twice within the county at any particular election, although he may have property qualifications in a dozen different places. The County Council consists of 118 members elected for three years, and nineteen aldermen elected by the Council for a term of six years. Unlike the lord mayor, the chairman of the County Council has no honorary appellation by virtue of his office, but he is usually knighted by the queen. Only one member of the County Council, the deputy chairman, is paid a salary, yet all the councilors work hard, and their responsibilities are extremely onerous. Little is heard of this work, for it is nearly all done in the various committees, which meet about 1,600 times in the course of the year, and only once a week does the Council meet in open session, where ambitious men may air their eloquence before the reporters.

The population of Greater London is estimated to-day to be rather over 6,000,000, but the population of the administrative county of London, over which the



BUSINESS AND PLEASURE.

Council directly governs, is 4,500,000, and there are about 600,000 buildings to accommodate this vast horde. The County Council stands to the multitude almost *in locus parentis*. It looks after their health and comfort in various ways, maintains the main drainage system, controls and maintains the fire brigade, which, by the way, is not more than half the strength of that of New York, maintains most of the bridges, makes by-laws respecting public health for the guidance of the local bodies, appoints coroners and maintains coroners' courts, controls and maintains parks and open spaces (except the royal parks, which are nominally the property of the crown), maintains and provides asylums for lunatics, licenses theaters and variety halls, tests and stamps weights and measures, provides dwellings for artisans and laborers, licenses and inspects dairies, cowsheds, and milk-shops, keeps a sharp eye and sensitive nose upon slaughter houses, knackers' yards, soap and tallow-melting, fat-melting and blood-boiling businesses, and other offensive trades, and supervises common lodging houses. No duty in respect to the physical well-being of its 4,500,000 constituents is



too small for the Council, and yet in regard to the more strictly moral welfare of its people it is absolutely powerless, with the result that vice flaunts itself brazenly in the public streets to an extent absolutely without parallel in any other place in the civilized world.

The vestries and district boards still exist and possess most of the powers which they enjoyed under the old Metropolitan Board of Works, and they will probably find a place in any system of London government, owing to the vastness of the metropolis. Their members are elected

in the dwellings of the poor, enforce the law against the owners of insanitary dwellings, provide public baths, wash-houses, libraries, cemeteries, and so forth.

The vestries elect the members of the Metropolitan Asylum Board, which provides hospitals for infectious diseases and asylums for lunatics, and members of the Boards of Guardians, who control the administration of public relief and provide so-called work-houses for the accommodation of the destitute poor. Finally, there is the London School Board, directly elected by the people every three years, which has



ROTTEN ROW.

upon a restricted suffrage annually, and they do much useful work without unnecessary fuss. The vestries deal with sewerage and drainage apart from the main drainage, which the Council looks after. They remove refuse, provide mortuaries, see that proper notification is given by the medical authorities of infectious diseases, enforce the law relating to the adulteration of foods and drugs, pave, cleanse, maintain, light, water, and scavenge the streets, deal with all public nuisances, look after the sanitary condition of bakeries and workshops, prevent overcrowding and enforce sanitation

under its absolute management and control five hundred public schools.

Perhaps the two duties most important in their relation to the public health performed by the County Council are those of the construction and maintenance of the system of main drainage, and maintenance of parks and open spaces. The main drainage system is a stupendous one, carried out at a capital cost of \$38,846,465. Within the memory of living men the whole of London's sewage was cast in the river Thames, making that fine stream the foulest stretch of water in the world. Just thirty-two years

ago the gigantic work was taken in hand by the Metropolitan Board of Works, and it may now be said to be completed. The County Council has in its charge 284 miles of main sewers, to maintain which it has in its permanent employment a staff of a thou-



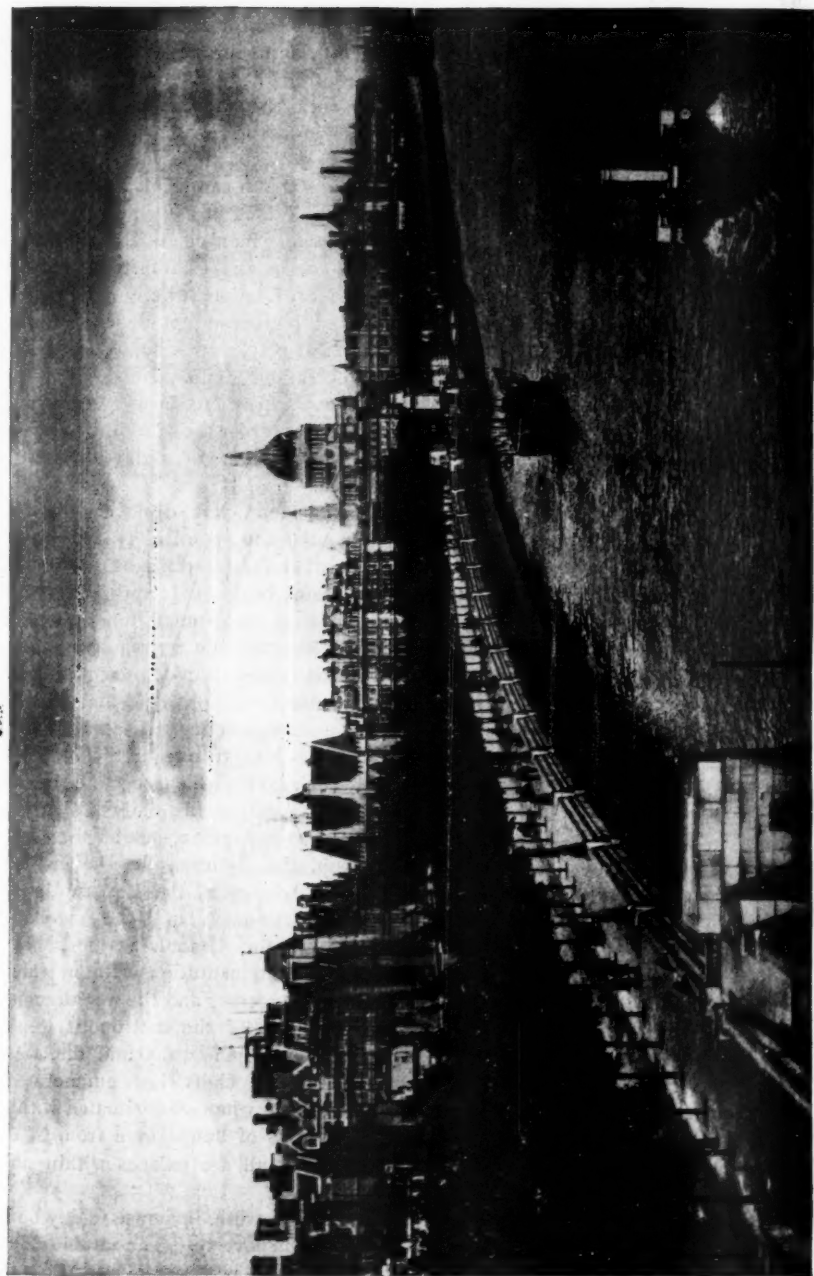
A LONDON FIREMAN.

sand men. The main sewers average nine feet in diameter and they convey the 210,000,000 gallons of drainage water and sewage which mighty London produces every day to a great pumping station at Abbey Mills, in the east of London, and thence to two immense outfall stations at Barking, twelve miles further down on the northern side of the river, and to Crossness on the southern side, twenty miles from the metropolis. At Barking and Crossness the sewage is treated by precipitation. Last year eighty thousand million of gallons of sewage were dealt with at the two stations, and this prodigious quantity yielded by precipitation 2,250,000 tons of sludge, which was taken in the Council's fleet of steamers fifty miles out to sea and deposited on the bed of the

ocean. The remainder, bright odorless liquid, was discharged into the river Thames. It required 28,000 tons of lime and protosulphate of iron to precipitate this sewage, and the cost of maintenance of the two outfall stations was nearly half a million dollars for the year. Unlike Paris, London does not make a show of its mighty sewers, which seems a pity, for if the citizens could visit these underground marvels they would be able to realize that they get good value for the millions which, more or less cheerfully, they have provided for the mammoth work.

London on the surface is not less cared for than London underground. As already explained, the streets are under the charge of the district boards and vestries. The system is not altogether an ideal one but it has its advantages. It tends, for one thing, to promote and encourage emulation among the various local bodies, with the result that the streets of London are probably better kept than those of any other city in the world. There is, moreover, plenty of variety, which a good many people consider pleasing. Some local bodies pin their faith upon Australian hard jarrah wood for paving the roads, others prefer the old-fashioned stone cobbles or granite blocks, and a few swear by asphalt. In the short run of three miles from Victoria in the west to Aldgate in the east the inquiring stranger will find all these varieties of roadway and all the best of their kinds. Those three famous thoroughfares, the Strand, Fleet Street, and Ludgate Hill, for instance, are paved with jarrah wood as carefully laid as a parquet floor, while most of the streets in the heart of the city of London, including historical Cheapside and the space opposite the Royal Exchange and Mansion House, across which 1,900 vehicles sometimes pass in a single hour, are laid with asphalt as clean and smooth as the surface of a ball-room.

Twenty years ago London, for its size, was worse off than many provincial and foreign cities in the matter of parks and open spaces, but there has been a vast improvement since that time. Even in the



THE THAMES EMBANKMENT AND ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.

matter of parks there is a dual system of management. Some of the larger open spaces, such as Hyde Park, Kensington Gardens, Regent's Park, Greenwich Park, and Kew Gardens, belong to the crown, are controlled by Her Majesty's commissioner of works, and looked after by men who wear the royal livery. But of the total area of 6,122 acres of parks and open spaces, 4,267 acres are in the capable hands of the County Council. Of this total 366  $\frac{1}{4}$  acres are metamorphosed ancient churchyards and other tiny spaces mostly situated in densely crowded districts and therefore of a value and importance out of all proportion to their actual size.

It used to be said, and with much truth, that the tavern was the London working man's club. A restless man had no other place in which to spend his evenings except the street or in too many cases the not more cheerful "home." The tavern-keeper catered for the working man, provided comfortable rooms for him, and allowed him to pay for his beer on the weekly pay-day instead of insisting upon cash down. The arrangement was a good one for the liquor-seller and for nobody else, and very grad-

with it his means of livelihood. These restrictions led to the establishment of clubs for working men, for such institutions are exempted from the iron regulations imposed upon the professional liquor-seller. In his club the working man is in the eyes of the law in his own home. He can keep the place open every hour of the twenty-four if he cares to do so, and can drink liquor all the time. Jack, in fact, is as good as his master; the working man's club is equal before the law to the palatial establishments in the West End of London, where princes and nobles and plutocrats get drunk, or ruin themselves at play, or find social and intellectual recreation. The acquisition of the knowledge of these facts was a great and glorious discovery for the horny-handed son of toil, and he went into the club business with enthusiasm.

Following upon this discovery by the working man the political party managers found that clubs kept interest alive and formed useful centers of work. Temperance reformers also found it necessary to establish clubs, and the aggregate result is that London is now studded over with hundreds of these institutions, and that there is

no self-respecting artisan who does not belong to one or the other of them. They have become an integral part of the daily life of the toiler in London, just as the Carlton, the Reform, the Devonshire, the Athenæum, the Constitutional, the National Liberal, the Army and Navy, the United Service, have long been institutions without which the aristocracy and the wealthy middle class of the metropolis would doubtless pine away and die. All the great clubs just enumerated, with many more, are situated within a radius of half a mile from Char-

ing Cross, and all are palaces within and without.

London is, in truth, immense to-day both in wealth and in poverty. The ratable value of its buildings is nearly two hundred million dollars, and the bare land upon which those buildings stand is worth seventy-five



ST. JAMES' PARK.

ually Parliament made its continuance impossible. Acts were passed forbidding the saloon-keeper from giving credit for liquor supplied, games of chance on licensed premises were prohibited, and any tavern-keeper permitting betting in his house ran very grave risk of losing his license, and



PICCADILLY.

million more, yet there are at this moment 105,000 persons in the poorhouses so absolutely destitute that they have to be fed, clothed, and lodged at the public cost. So vast is the mass of disease and suffering that 130 hospitals are required to cope with it. The imagination almost recoils from the thought of what will be the immensity of London fifty years hence. The mighty metropolis is even now growing at the rate of 45,000 persons and 15,000 houses every year, but with this increase there is a concurrent improvement in the moral and material welfare of its people. During the past twenty-five years the mortality from typhoid fever has decreased from 374 to 135 per million; sixty years ago 300 persons out of every million died of typhus, while to-day the mortality from that disease is less than one per million; in the days of Queen Elizabeth the death-rate in London was 80 per 1,000; to-day it is about 18 per 1,000. There is comfort in these figures. They justify the belief that the London of the future will be a brighter and healthier and happier London, and therefore those who love the mighty imperial city may regard its stupendous expansion with equanimity and watch its growth with pride unminged with fear.

## TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES.

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

THE first telegraphic message was in these words: "What God hath wrought." The reverent sender wrote with larger meaning than she knew. What has been wrought is almost past understanding. So great is it that it seems providential—the very handiwork of God in history. It is difficult for the present generation of young people to grasp the conditions of sixty years ago, when all information had to be carried by man or horse or boat. Signaling by flags, lights, semaphore arms, by fire and smoke, and messages by birds were known, but all were limited in range and expression. Until the introduction of railroads there was no practical way of sending definite information any faster than a horse could run or a boat



sail. The railroad made it possible to send a letter faster—and that was all. The United States post-office is to-day the most perfect system for carrying written information ever devised, and yet Boston is six hours from New York, Chicago a day to the West, San Francisco five days distant, Puerto Rico is five days, and Manila twenty days from New York.

With the telegraph and telephone every man and woman in the United States who can reach an office, and that practically means the entire population, can within two hours communicate with any other man or woman in the country. In the limits of any town or city this can be done within two minutes, often in ten seconds. What does this rapid transmission of information mean to the individual or the community? First, it means safety—personal security. Does the greatest danger of our lives threaten? The telegraph instantly calls to the aid of the individual all the resources of the fire department, police, and ambulance service. It is the instant help that counts. It is the moral effect of telegraphic speed in calling for aid that deters the would-be burglar and house-breaker.

What is true of the individual is true of the community. In case of riot, fire, disaster of any kind, every town is in instant call of every neighboring town. Does any state need help? Every state in the Union knows it the same day. Nations are in sympathetic touch with every nation the wide world over. In like manner all trades, arts, and manufactures are in immediate communication. A comet discovered through one telescope may be watched by fifty the same night. The rise and fall of prices in every market is known the same day in all markets. The cargo at sea is sold between ports. The night editor of a city newspaper knows all that has happened of importance in the world in the past ten hours. In six hours more his readers know all of it that will interest them.

When the telegraph was first introduced its messages were received with apprehension. The strange envelope seemed always to contain news of sudden death. It took

some time for this to disappear, because the cost of telegraphing was so high that it was only used in case of necessity. As the cost was reduced messages became commonplace, even trivial, and they were received with about the same feeling that attends the opening of a business letter. Then came the telephone. This, too, in time, became cheaper, and, as a result, of more general use. At first, a telephone call meant most urgent and important business. Now it may mean a call for the laundry woman, an invitation to dinner, or an inquiry as to the baby's teething. It is safe to say that to-day the greater part of all business is done by wire. The preliminaries, the details may be by letter or interview—the conclusions of business are by telegraph or telephone. Shopping, ordering of materials, orders for work to begin or stop, emergencies in work or construction are all in greater or less degree done by wire.

What is the effect upon the individual of these conditions? The sense of dread has completely disappeared. There is a sort of tacit recognition that telegrams and calls to the telephone take precedence over other business communications, but this is all. On the other hand, business conditions are absolutely and completely changed. Once the merchant saw his ship sail away and went home knowing that he would hear nothing from her for six months. He could do nothing but trust in the captain and wait. To-day there is no waiting. Everything is now. To-day is the important day. Uncertainty has given place to complete knowledge. Things move and the man must move too—or be left.

The result is that business is concentrated, condensed, instant, and immediate. There is no time to think—action is what is wanted. Business is concentrated to a focus during business hours. Thinking and planning must be done beforehand. The result is that business hours are shortened, work is rushed, things are settled and done quickly, promptly. The facilities being instantaneous the work must be rapid. If these conditions had come suddenly the effect upon the physical and mental health

of the people would have been disastrous. Fortunately, they came slowly and people had time to be trained to the new facilities for doing business. The training is not finished yet. It is evident that the younger generation of business people are more active, quicker to decide, more attentive, shorter and quicker in speech, without being less amiable. The brevity of the telegram trains to conciseness of speech. The hurry of the telephone drills in economy of words. Business being rapid is condensed into fewer hours and with longer rests between days. This is an advantage on the ground that when you work—work, when you play—play.

One of the most remarkable things about the telephone is the recent enormous extension of its field of usefulness. In 1884 there were 325,574 telephones in use. In 1894 there were 582,506. So far the increase had been slow. After that it increased rapidly. In 1895 there were 674,976; in 1896, 772,627, and the last report of the American Bell Company places the number on January 1, 1897, at 919,121. In 1885 there were 772 telephone exchanges, and the line-wires were 101,592 miles long. In 1895 there were 867 exchanges and 396,674 miles of line-wire, 148,285 miles being underground. On the 1st of January, 1897, there were 1,025 exchanges, with 626,400 miles of line-wire, 282,634 miles being underground and 2,675 miles in cables under water. In 1895 this company had 5,168 employees. In 1897 it gave employment to 16,682 men and women. In this one company there are every day over 3,000,000 "talks." This company does the larger part of all the telephone business of the country. There are, also, many other smaller companies and private lines. The general government also owns and uses over a thousand miles of telephone lines. It is not possible to get the total telephone mileage in the country, yet it is known that the total is increasing continuously and rapidly. There are, no doubt, over one hundred thousand telephone messages every day in the week.

The most recent extension of the tele-

phone has been into the country, bringing the farm in reach of the town. Before he had a telephone the truck farmer or fruit-grower loaded up his team with a miscellaneous assortment of his produce and drove to town, trusting to luck to find a good market and fair prices. Now he ascertains the state of the market and its tone before he starts. He even sells his crop in advance and only delivers what is wanted. The telephone has made farming profitable by removing uncertainty. It also tends to equalize prices, to prevent ruinous gluts and famine prices for articles of general consumption. Its use by the farmer is shown in the greater uniformity of prices in the retail markets and it has stopped the foolish haggling over prices that is such a common feature of European retail markets. The supply and price of fish, vegetables, fruit, flowers, and other articles of daily consumption is now almost entirely controlled by telephone. The telephone has thus become the balance wheel of trade throughout the country, preventing alike local gluts and famines.

The progress of the telegraph has been equally remarkable. Taking the records of the Western Union Company as a fair guide for the last thirty years, we find that in 1866 there were in this country 2,250 telegraph offices, operating 75,686 miles of wire. There is no report of the number of messages for that year, but, beginning in 1867, we have very interesting data concerning the business of telegraphy. In 1867 there were 2,565 offices and 85,291 miles of wire, a trifle over two wires to a pole or in a cable. The number of messages sent were 5,879,282, but the average cost to the sender was over a dollar. The profit to the company was very large in proportion to the business. In ten years the number of offices had increased more than three times, while the length of lines had only a little more than doubled. The number of messages increased nearly three times, but the poles carried only two and a half wires each. The average cost of a message had dropped more than one half, though the cost of handling was still very high.

During the next ten years there was an enormous increase in the volume of business and the facilities for handling it. In 1887 the number of offices was 15,658. The mileage was 524,641, with a little more than four wires to a pole. The number of messages was 47,394,530. The cost to the sender was about thirty cents and the margin of profit was very small. In 1897 there were 21,769 offices employing 841,002 miles of wire. The general demand for underground wires in cities had raised the number of wires to a pole or cable to five. There were 58,151,684 messages and the average cost was about thirty and a half cents, the margin of profit remaining small. The volume of business in the thirty years since 1867 has increased eleven times, and the wire mileage has increased ten times, while the convenience to the public (offices) has increased eight times. This means that this company has covered ten times as much country, or nearly so, the proportion of wires to a pole having also increased. That the increase of convenience has not been greater can, no doubt, be explained by the fact that much of the wire mileage increase is in cities. With all this increase the cost per message has been reduced seventy per cent. This most interesting showing only tends to prove that facilities for business create business and that increased business reduces the cost of the service rendered. Incidentally it proves that our people are quick to adopt improvements that save time, labor, or money.

This report does not, however, cover the entire field. The Postal Telegraph Company has in operation 2,558 offices, with a wire mileage of 128,091, and there is every reason to think that it does a large business at equally moderate rates. In addition to these two great companies there are a large number of small companies or private lines. The railroads employ thousands of miles of wire and the government also operates military and other lines. The grand total of wire communication by telegraph or telephone in this country probably now exceeds one million five hundred thousand miles.

Certain persons of a classic turn of mind, and whose knowledge of Greece and Rome is apparently greater than their knowledge of the United States, have expressed grave fears as to the future of this nation. Recently they have bewailed the increase of our territory. They have feared the country would fall to pieces of mere bigness. It might do so had we no telegraphs. The telegraph and telephone practically make the whole country no bigger than one of the seven hills of Rome. There seems to have been, at times, some difficulty in conveying information even a few blocks in ancient Rome. To-day every breakfast table, with a very few exceptions, may know everything that has happened of any importance during the night in every town between Ponce and Eastport, Me., on the East and the Pacific on the West. The opinion of the nation is every day, almost every hour, known at the White House. We are one people because we can think together. Roman history might have been different if Julius Cæsar had had a telephone. This nation is bound together with a live wire—alive with the thought, feeling, and will of seventy million people who are all in instant touch with all. On this rests the safety of the republic.

The effect of the telephone and telegraph upon the people has been everywhere for good. The children in school once studied the useless history of dead peoples. To-day they study current history as it is made from day to day. The newspaper may not be in Addisonian English, but it is a fine textbook in making men and women. Even religious thought has been broadened and quickened by this instant touch with all the world. We have just seen a war from day to day, present by wire at every victory. Waterloo was not known in London for days afterward. New Orleans was a battle after the war was over. Manila and the awful week of suspense have taught us what it is to be without wire connection.

Telephone and telegraph are both educators. They have trained and are training our people to new ways of doing business. They have materially changed social life on

the farm and in the small town. The people without them must be out of the game. Here they began and here they have been most wonderfully improved. All the world comes here to learn the twin arts. Our methods, our exchanges, offices, our plants, are the model for the world, and nowhere

has there been such progress as here. A traveler who had lived for many years in Greece recently landed in New York. On reaching his hotel he asked for pie. Why? "Because," he said, "I have just come from a benighted country that has neither pies nor telephones."

## SIR ROBERT PEEL.

BY H. MORSE STEPHENS, M. A.

PROFESSOR OF MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

THE passing away of the greatest and most conspicuous of the disciples of Sir Robert Peel has called forth a greater interest than has been expressed for many years past in the character and career of the second prime minister of Queen Victoria. Mr. Gladstone was profoundly influenced by the great statesman under whom he first served as a member of an English cabinet. In a masterly sketch of Mr. Gladstone's political character Mr. James Bryce clearly pointed out the effect of Peel's influence upon his more youthful colleague. It was from Peel that Gladstone learned the secret of successful financial administration; it was from Peel that he learned how to understand and to lead the House of Commons; it was from Peel that he learned the even more valuable lesson that iron consistency is not the only moral quality that deserves respect and that it is more noble for a statesman to acknowledge that he has made mistakes of judgment, even though the acknowledgment lay him open to accusations of levity and insincerity, than to persist in a mistaken course in order to preserve a reputation for inflexibility. For many years after the death of Sir Robert Peel Mr. Gladstone remained the most conspicuous member of the little knot of so-called "Peelites," and to the end of his long life he cherished and venerated the memory of his former leader.

It is not only because Peel and Gladstone stood to each other in the relation of teacher and pupil in politics that their names must ever be associated in the history of the Vic-

torian era. They were, further, in a more general fashion the first and the second representatives of the type of English statesmen which has especially flourished in the nineteenth century. In the eighteenth century England was under the rule of an oligarchy first of birth and landed property and later of wealth; in the twentieth century England must be a democratic country; in the interval of transition, which is clearly marked by the monopoly of the franchise by the middle classes between the Reform Bills of 1832 and 1886, England has been neither an oligarchy nor a democracy, but under the control of the middle classes. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that the two most distinguished statesmen of this transition century belonged by birth to the class of great employers of labor who made their wealth in the heyday of England's industrial and commercial supremacy.

Sir Robert Peel's father was a wealthy manufacturer who made his fortune in the days following the revolution introduced by the use of machinery; Mr. Gladstone's father was a wealthy Liverpool merchant and an owner of West Indian estates. Both fathers were ambitious for their gifted sons and gave them the educational advantages which had a century earlier been among the privileges of the aristocracy. Peel was sent to Harrow School and Gladstone to its most famous rival, Eton College. Both were distinguished among their school fellows and proceeded in due time to Christ Church, then the leading college at Oxford. Both obtained the crowning academic dis-

tion of a double first class in honors and immediately afterward entered the House of Commons with a university reputation for ability which was in itself the most favorable introduction to public life. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the younger man should have followed closely in the footsteps of his senior and that it should be impossible to interpret aright the career of Gladstone without understanding that of Sir Robert Peel.

Peel was born in 1788, and it was in 1809, the year of Mr. Gladstone's birth, that he entered the House of Commons. The two great figures at that time in English parliamentary life were Robert, Lord Castlereagh and George Canning, the last of great English aristocratic and the first of great English democratic statesmen. The two had been secretaries of state in the Duke of Portland's cabinet and their irreconcilable differences in character and policy had in the year Sir Robert Peel entered public life led to the famous duel which caused both for a time to retire from office. But though out of office, the Tory, or, to speak more accurately, the "Pittite" party, which controlled the government by a great majority in both Houses of Parliament, looked to them as its leaders. Castlereagh was an aristocrat to his finger-tips; he haughtily despised public opinion and believed that he and his friends understood better the duties and the interests of England than the people; he was a punctual, laborious, and able administrator, despising sentiment and esteeming only the logic of facts; he had neither eloquence nor personal magnetism, but his unswerving devotion to his country and his masterful desire to promote her greatness, even in spite of her own wishes, made him the idol of practical men and of aristocratic generals and administrators. Canning, on the other hand, as has been well said, was "Conservative in his opinions but Liberal in his sympathies"; he believed in public opinion and appealed to it eloquently in speech and writing; he was swayed by sentiment; he believed in the people and tried to win their confidence and affection; he disliked the haughty cold-

bloodedness of aristocratic rule and detested alike the character and the policy of his rival.

Peel's sympathy went out toward Lord Castlereagh and not toward Canning. Though no aristocrat by birth Peel cultivated the coldness of demeanor which characterized the great aristocratic leader; he had a business-like appreciation of the practical man of affairs; he disliked sentiment and feared rhetoric; he loved his country deeply in the undemonstrative Castlereagh fashion and set to work to win for himself the reputation of a sober and practical administrator rather than of a brilliant orator. He preferred to be esteemed in the House of Commons as an effective debater and simple speaker, and it was by the deliberate avoidance of anything that sounded like eloquence that he gained the ear of the House of Commons. When Castlereagh returned to office in 1812 as secretary of state for foreign affairs under the prime ministership of Lord Liverpool, Robert Peel, though but twenty-four years of age, entered office as Irish secretary.

It is not intended in this essay to deal with the administrative career of Robert Peel. It is enough to state that in every office which he held he proved himself a faithful and hard-working public servant, skilled in the rapid dispatch of business and absolutely honorable in every detail of his public life. When he held the office of Irish secretary the actual executive power was still in the hands of the lord lieutenant of Ireland and Peel's position was not one of cabinet rank. His want of sympathy for the Irish people, his avowed opposition to Catholic emancipation, and his chilling manners made him profoundly unpopular, and he never received credit for his upright performance of his duties and his endeavor to heal the sufferings of Ireland by practical measures of relief. In 1818 he resigned an office which was distasteful to him, owing to its requiring long absences from England, and he remained out of office for some years, during which he devoted himself mainly to the discussion of financial questions. After the death of Castlereagh



in 1822 Lord Liverpool was obliged to re-constitute his cabinet, and he summoned to it George Canning to take the place of Castlereagh and Robert Peel to succeed Lord Sidmouth as home secretary.

The next five years fixed Peel's reputation as an administrator of the very first rank. In conjunction with Robinson at the Exchequer and Huskisson at the Board of Trade Peel carried out a series of financial and administrative reforms which form the real glory of the latter years of Lord Liverpool's administration, although they are not as generally appreciated as Canning's brilliant but somewhat sentimental foreign policy. They prepared the way, however, for the restoration of England's material prosperity, which had been terribly shaken during the dark years of panic which followed the conclusion of the war with Napoleon. When Lord Liverpool died in 1827 Peel was one of those unbending Tories of the Castlereagh type who refused to serve under Canning, and he received his reward when a few months after the death of Canning the Duke of Wellington formed an ultra-Tory administration in which Peel returned to the Home Office and became the leader of the House of Commons.

It was as a member of this ultra-Tory administration that Peel performed the first of the two famous reversals of policy upon which his reputation as a statesman largely rests. He had ever been a consistent opponent to granting the right of the franchise or other political rights to the Roman Catholics. But when he saw the kingdom threatened by revolution or at the very least by a serious political commotion if the rights of the Catholics were further denied he sank his personal convictions for what he believed to be the imperative need of the country and aided the Duke of Wellington, who had also sacrificed his personal prejudices, in forcing the Catholic Emancipation Bill and the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts through an unwilling Parliament. For this conduct both Peel and the great duke were violently assailed by the fanatics of the Tory party as traitors and turn-coats, but neither of them swerved  
C—Dec.

in doing their uncongenial duty, and religious disabilities for taking part in public life were abolished in England through the instrumentality of the two great Tory leaders, who placed the welfare of their country above their personal feeling.

It need hardly be said that Peel was an opponent of the Reform Bill of 1832. Although sprung from a different class from Castlereagh and Wellington he felt all their distrust of the extension of the franchise. The transference of power to the middle classes, which the Reform Bill accomplished, as a matter of fact conveyed political power to the very type of his fellow-citizens which was most strongly attracted by the practical common sense of Peel, and strengthened his political influence in his party and in the country. Nevertheless he continued in the Tory camp, and on the dismissal of the Reform ministry from office in 1834 he served for a few months as prime minister. He did this at the express desire of the Duke of Wellington, who declared that an English prime minister ought to sit in the House of Commons and therefore refused to repeat the political arrangement of the Tory cabinet of 1828. After this short tenure of the highest office Peel became the recognized leader of the Tory opposition in the House of Commons.

The years that immediately followed were of the greatest importance. They witnessed the accession of the young Princess Victoria to the throne of England, and it was speedily asserted that she had yielded her entire confidence, to an extent dangerous to the constitution, to the Liberal prime minister, Lord Melbourne. The relations of Queen Victoria to her first prime minister, who loved her as a daughter, saw her daily, and trained her for the part of a constitutional English monarch, have been admirably sketched by Mr. Reginald B. Brett in his "The Yoke of Empire." It was inevitable that the young and friendless girl, so suddenly called to the throne, should be impressed by the chivalrous devotion of Melbourne and should trust him with her whole heart.

It was under these circumstances that

Peel was placed in an exceedingly awkward position in 1839, when the Melbourne ministry was defeated in the House of Commons. Constitutional precedent demanded that Sir Robert Peel as leader of the opposition should be called upon to form an administration. This Peel declined to do unless he was permitted to replace not only the Whig ministers, but also the Whig ladies with whom Lord Melbourne had surrounded the young sovereign, with political partisans of his own. The queen passionately resisted the demand and the Melbourne ministry continued in office until 1841. By that time the temper of the country was unmistakably shown at a general election, and the queen was obliged to submit to all the demands of the Tory, or, as he was now called, the Conservative leader. But the queen was no longer so dependent upon Lord Melbourne as she had been two years before. Her marriage to Prince Albert had given her a prudent adviser and a friend upon whom she could rely. Yet it was with the greatest reluctance that she admitted Peel to office and she never became as intimate with him as she had been with his predecessor.

Sir Robert Peel's second premiership lasted from 1841 to 1846 and is one of the most important periods in modern English history. The great economic change which made England an industrial and commercial country was accomplished. The population had outgrown the home food supply and the industrial and commercial interests resented having to pay tribute to the agriculturists. Peel recognized the change that had come over the country. By wise financial measures, like the Bank Charter Act, he protected the commercial interests and eventually he made up his mind to carry through the House of Commons the repeal of the corn laws. This was the second great personal sacrifice of Peel's political career. As in the instance of Catholic emancipation, he ran counter to the strongest convictions of the party that he led and that had placed him in power; again, as in 1829, he was accused of inconsistency and the basest treachery; again he sacrificed his personal con-

victions and his very reputation to what he believed to be his country's good; and in doing this he set a high example of noble self-abnegation to English statesmen.

Never perhaps, except in the parallel case of Gladstone and home rule, has an English minister been so bitterly assailed as Peel was for bringing about the repeal of the corn laws. His old friends denounced him as a traitor; his old adversaries were skeptical as to the sincerity of his change of heart; there can be no doubt that Mr. Gladstone, who was one of the colleagues who stood by the premier, learned much from Peel's attitude of the lofty demeanor which he later exhibited. When Peel retired from office in 1846 it was found that in spite of the distrust of party politicians he had retained the confidence of all moderate Englishmen, and when he died from an accident in 1850 a spontaneous outburst of popular sympathy showed that the nation at large appreciated the statesman who had twice sacrificed personal reputation and party favor for his country's good.

Only the most striking characteristics of Peel's political career have been brought out in this brief sketch of his official life. It would be tedious to dwell on the details of his administrative achievements. It is enough to say that the practical business aptitude he had inherited from his father and sedulously cultivated had made him one of England's greatest administrators. But a word should be said of Peel's exceptional skill as a parliamentary leader. He was no orator, and this was in his favor, for the average Englishman of House of Commons' caliber has an incurable distrust for a brilliant talker. But he was an admirable debater; no man ever surpassed him in the power of making brief, business-like comments on matters under discussion or in the calm temper he brought into the legislative arena. Lord Beaconsfield, who did more than any other politician to hound Peel out of office, has borne testimony to Peel's greatness as a parliamentarian. After declaring that Peel was not a great minister, a great party leader, or a great orator, Lord Beaconsfield goes on to say in a famous

speech that: "What he really was and what posterity will acknowledge him to have been is the greatest member of Parliament that ever lived." Such praise from Peel's personal enemy may be taken as conclusive.

With regard to Peel's personality it must be acknowledged that he seems to have possessed none of the personal magnetism of the greatest of his contemporaries. His coldness of demeanor, in part due to shyness, concealed the real tenderness of his heart, and his sincere sympathy with all that was good and noble and progressive was carefully hidden away under the studied appearance of a mere practical business man. His ambition was for his country and not for himself, and it is well worth noting that when the queen pressed him to become a Knight of the Garter, the highest real honor she could offer to him, for a removal to the House of Lords would have meant political extinction, he refused in a very characteristic fashion. Mr. Brett says, in the volume already quoted:

He declared that his heart was not set on titles of honor or social distinctions; that he sprang from the people and was essentially of the people; that in his case such honor would be misapplied; that the only distinction that he coveted at her hands was that the queen should say to him: "You have

been a faithful servant and have done your duty to your country and to myself."

No one had a better opportunity of studying Peel's character and conduct than Prince Albert, who, as the queen's permanent private secretary, was brought into daily contact with the minister. The Prince Consort summed up his opinion of Peel upon the great statesman's death in the following lines, which may well serve as the conclusion to this essay:

The constitution of Sir Robert Peel's mind was peculiarly that of a statesman, and of an English statesman; he was Liberal from feeling, but Conservative upon principle. While his impulses drove him to foster progress, his sagacious mind and great experience showed him how easily the whole machinery of state and of society is deranged; and how important, and how difficult also, it is to direct its further development in accordance with its fundamental principles, like organic growth in nature. It was peculiar to him that in great things, as in small, all the difficulties and objections occurred to him; first he would anxiously consider them, pause, and warn against rash resolutions; but having convinced himself, after a long and careful investigation, that a step was not only right to be taken, but of the practical mode also of safely taking it, it became a necessity and duty to him to take it; all his caution and apparent timidity changed into courage and power of action, and at the same time readiness cheerfully to make any personal sacrifice which its execution might demand.

## THE HUMAN LIFE OF GOD.

CANON GORE, in his Bampton Lectures, adroitly uses the Jesuit theologian De Lugo as a man of straw through whom he may safely and vigorously attack the false conceptions of Christ's person which are still current, and to a considerable degree dominant, in dogmatic theology. He says that De Lugo depicts a Christ "who, if he was, as far as his body is concerned, in a condition of growth, was, as regards his soul and intellect, from the first moment and throughout his life in full enjoyment of the beatific vision. Externally a wayfarer, a *viator*, inwardly he was throughout a *comprehensor*, he had already attained. . . . It is denied that he can be strictly called 'the servant of God'

even as man, in spite of the direct use of that expression in the Acts of the Apostles. He is spoken of at the institution of the Eucharist as offering sacrifice to his own Godhead."

Canon Gore condemns this picture by Lugo as in striking contradiction to that which the New Testament presents. But the point which I wish to make clear and distinct is that, in spite of this contradiction, the picture has not been frankly and finally discarded in Christian theology. It still exercises an obscuring and perverting influence upon the vision of Christ. It still produces, by imitation, representations of him in which definitions dominate facts and formulas hide or obliterate realities.

We do not need to go back to the seventeenth century, nor abroad to the Jesuits, for our examples. We may turn to Archdeacon Wilberforce's book on "The Incarnation," and find him representing the body of Christ as miraculous in its freedom from sickness, its power over animals, its exemption from the necessity of death, and its inherent power of communicating life to others. In regard to the mind of Christ, he says that "since it would be impious to suppose that our Lord had pretended an ignorance which he did not experience, we are led to the conclusion [astonishing conclusion!] that what he partook, as man, was not actual ignorance, but such deficiency in the means of arriving at truth as belongs to mankind." We may turn to the "Dogmatic Theology" of Dr. W. G. T. Shedd and read:

Jesus Christ as a theanthropic person was constituted of a divine nature and a human nature. The divine nature had its own form of experience, like the mind in an ordinary human person; and the human nature had its own form of experience, like the body in a common man. The experiences of the divine nature were as diverse from those of the human nature as those of the human mind are from those of the human body. Yet there was but one person who was the subject-ego of both of these experiences. At the very time when Christ was conscious of weariness and thirst by the well of Samaria, he also was conscious that he was the eternal and only-begotten Son of God, the second person in the Trinity. This is proved by his words to the Samaritan woman: "Whosoever drinketh of the water that I shall give him shall never thirst; but the water that I shall give him shall be in him a well of water springing up into everlasting life. I that speak unto thee am the Messiah." The first-mentioned consciousness of fatigue and thirst came through the human nature in his person; the second-mentioned consciousness of omnipotence and supremacy came through the divine nature in his person. If he had not had a human nature, he could not have had the former consciousness; and if he had not had a divine nature, he could not have had the latter. Because he had both natures in one person, he could have both.

We may turn to Canon Liddon's magnificent work on "The Divinity of Our Lord" and find him writing:

Christ's manhood is not of itself an individual being; it is not a seat and center of personality; it

has no conceivable existence apart from the act whereby the Eternal Word in becoming incarnate called it into being and made it his own. It is a vesture which he has folded around his person; it is an instrument through which he places himself in contact with men and whereby he acts upon humanity.

And so, if we accept this picture of Christ, the manhood of Jesus fades, retreats, grows dim and shadowy. It wavers like a veil. It dissolves like mist. It descends again, mysterious and impenetrable, illusory and impersonal, to envelop him whom we love and adore in its strange and unfamiliar folds. We grope after him, but we can touch nothing but the hem of his mystic robe. We long for him, but he approaches us, and comes into contact with us, only through an instrument. He is not what he seems. The Son of God behind that veil is beyond our reach. The Son of Man, whom human eyes beheld and human hands touched, is not the real, living, veritable Savior, but only the form, the garment, of an inscrutable life. And if, in our dire confusion, our reasoning faith still succeeds in holding fast to the Eternal Logos, our confiding faith is maimed and robbed by the loss of that true, near, personal, loving, sympathizing Jesus, who was born of a woman, suffered under Pontius Pilate, was crucified, dead, and buried. He is gone from us, as certainly as if the Pharisees had spoken truth when they said that his disciples came by night and stole him away. The thing of which we are most in doubt, and about which we are least capable of any positive affirmation, as Dr. Bushnell said, is the humanity of Christ. We are left with a perfectly orthodox doctrine of two natures, but we no longer have a clear and simple gospel of One Person to teach to doubting men.

But the heart of Christendom has never rested content with this distant, vague, uncertain view of the real manhood of our Lord. There has always been a protest against it. There has always been an effort to escape from it.

We can see a strange and indirect but indubitable evidence of this deep inward dissatisfaction in the rise and growth of an



impassioned devotion to the human mother of Jesus. The worship of the Virgin Mary was a reprisal for the obscuration of the humanity of her Son. In the thought of her true womanly tenderness and affection, her real and unquestionable sorrows, her simple and familiar joys, her intimate, genuine, unfailing sympathy with all that makes our mortal life a bitter, blessed reality to us, the souls of the lowly and the lonely found that peace and consolation which they could no longer find in the contemplation of the distant Second Person of the Trinity through the telescope of theology. That which Jesus himself was to John and Peter, to the household of Bethany, to the penitent publican, and to the woman which was a sinner, Mary became to the baffled and confused faith of a later age—an approachable mediator of the divine mercy, a helper who could really understand and feel the need of those who cried for help, a warm and living image of the Eternal Sympathy in flesh and blood. In the light of medieval dogmatics Mariolatry appears not without its justification. And for my part, I should not wish to be bound to the Christology of Peter Lombard and Thomas Aquinas, without finding the compensation which their followers found in personal devotion and confidential trust, flowing instinctively and irresistibly toward the blessed Virgin.

But, after all, this was only a substitute for the real thing. It gave to faith the image of a lovely and adorable humanity in closest union with God; but it did not give back the old vision of the human life of God. And so through all the ages we see men turning, now in solitary thought, now in great companies, to seek that vision. The renaissance of Christian art, with its beautiful pictures of the infancy of Jesus, with its piercing and pathetic representations of the sufferings of Jesus, bears witness to the eagerness of that search. The revivals of Christian life, seen in such diverse yet cognate forms as the rise of the "Poor Men of Lyons" and the foundation of the "Brotherhood of St. Francis" are evidences of the same movement back to

Christ. Peter Waldo outside of the church, and Francis of Assisi within the church, were awakened by the same vision of Jesus, "a man of sorrows and acquainted with grief," and were inspired by the same desire to make his real human life the pattern of all piety and the example of all goodness.

The Reformation, which was at once and equally an intellectual and a spiritual protest against the arrogance of current theology and the coldness of religious life, supplies no better watchword to express its great motive than the saying of Erasmus: "I could wish that those frigid subtleties either were completely cut off, or were not the only things that the theologians held as certain, and that *the Christ pure and simple might be implanted deep within the minds of men.*" Modern biblical scholarship, with its splendid apparatus of linguistic and historical learning, proceeding in part, at first, from a skeptical impulse, has developed in our generation, either through the conversion of skeptics in the process of research, or through the awakening of believers to the necessities of their faith, into a reverent and eager quest for the historic Christ, the Jesus of the Gospels, the Lord of the primitive church, that we may see him as the first Christians saw him, in the integrity of his person and the sincerity of his life, and receive from him what they received—a faith that dissolved doubts and an inspiration that conquered difficulties. Back to the New Testament of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ—back to the facts that lie behind the definitions, back to the Person who embodies the truth, back to the record and reflection of that which the apostles "heard, and saw with their eyes, and looked upon, and their hands handled of the word of life"—this, and this only, is the way that leads us within sight of

the heaven-drawn picture  
Of Christ, the living Word.

Now it is a marvelous thing, and one for which we can never be grateful enough, that when we come to the New Testament in this spirit, we find in it exactly what we need; not an abstract formula, not a collection of definitions, but the graphic reflec-



tion of a Person seen from a fourfold point of view, and the simple record of manifold human experience under the direct and dominant influence of that Person. And the one fact that emerges clear and triumphant from the reflection and the record is that the writers of the New Testament never were in doubt of the human nature of Christ and never hesitated to make the most positive affirmations in regard to it.

The Christ of the Gospels is bone of our bone, flesh of our flesh, mind of our mind, heart of our heart. He is in subjection to his parents as a child. He grows to manhood. His character is unfolded and perfected by discipline. He labors for daily bread, and prays for divine grace. He hungers, and thirsts, and sleeps, and rejoices, and weeps. He is anointed with the Spirit for his ministry. He is tempted. He is lonely and disappointed. He asks for information. He confesses ignorance. He interprets the facts of nature and life with a prophetic insight. But he makes no new disclosures of the secrets of omniscience. There is no hint nor indication that he is leading a double life, reigning consciously as God while he is suffering apparently as man. His personality is simple and indivisible. The glory of what he is and does lies not only in its perfection, but in the hard conditions of its accomplishment. Superhuman in his origin, as the only begotten Son of God; superhuman in his office and work, as the revealer of the Father and the redeemer of mankind; in his earthly existence the Christ of the Gospels enters without reserve and without deception into all the conditions and limitations which are necessary to give to the world, once and forever, the human life of God.

When we turn to the epistles to see how this view of Christ was affected by the recognition of his divine glory and power as one who had been raised to the right hand of God and made head over all things to the church, two things strike us with tremendous force. First, the identity of his person was not lost, nor the continuity of his being broken: the exalted Christ is none other than "this same Jesus." Second, the

reality and absoluteness of his humiliation are emphasized as the ground and cause of his exaltation.

How vividly these two things come out, for example, in the writings of St. Paul. It has been well said that "the Christ whom Paul had seen was the risen Christ, and the conception of him in his glorified character is the one which rules his thoughts and forms the starting-point of his teaching." Corresponding to this present glory, Paul assumes an eternally preexistent glory of Christ as the image of the invisible God, the medium and end of creation. Now it is of this Person, divinely glorious in the past as the One who is before all things and in whom all things consist, divinely glorious in the present as the One who is far above every name that is named, not only in this world but in that which is to come—it is of this Person that Paul writes, in words so strong that they touch the very border of the impossible: "For our sakes *he beggared himself* that we through his beggary might be enriched." And again: "He, existing in the form of God, did not consider an equal state with God a thing to be selfishly grasped and held, but *emptied himself*, and took the form of a slave, being made in the likeness of man." These powerful expressions, "self-beggary," "self-emptying," seem to be directly designed to break up the conventional molds in which dogmatic theology has attempted to cast the truth and let it harden. They bring back a vital warmth and motion into the facts of the Incarnation. Once more it glows and flows. Once more we see that it is not a mere exhibition of being but a process of becoming.

The idea of self-beggary overflows the statement that a human nature was added and united to the divine nature; for that would have been no impoverishment but an enrichment. The idea of self-emptying shatters the narrow dogma that the Son of God suffered no change in himself when he became man. It was a change so absolute, so immense, that it can only be compared with the vicissitude from fulness to emptiness. He laid aside the existence-form of God, in order that he might take the exist-

ence-form of man. Whatever right he had to an equal state of glory with God, that right he did not cling to, but surrendered, in order that he might become a servant. And upon this real self-emptying there followed a real self-humiliation, wherein, being found in fashion as a man, he became obedient unto death, even the death of the cross. It was on account of this—and by “this” we must understand the entire actual operation of the self-denying, self-humbling, self-sacrificing mind of Christ—it was for this reason, St. Paul declares, that “God highly exalted him, and gave unto him the name which is above every name.” And I know not how to interpret such language with any reality of intelligence, unless it means that the present glory of the Son of God is in some true sense the result of his having become man and so fulfilled the will of God.

This view, which St. Paul condenses into a single pregnant “wherefore,” is expanded in the Epistle to the Hebrews. The object of this epistle is to show the superiority of the priesthood and sacrifice of Christ, which are substantial and enduring, to the priesthood and the sacrifice of the old dispensation, which were shadowy and transient. But the method which the writer follows is not to deny, but to assert the verity of Christ’s humanity. Without this he could not be the true priest nor offer the true sacrifice.

“In all things it behooved him to be made like unto his brethren.” “For we have not an high priest which cannot be touched with the feeling of our infirmities: but was in all points tempted like as we are, yet without sin.” “Though he were a Son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered, and being made perfect, he became the author of eternal salvation unto all them that obey him.” This complete incarnation, this thorough trial under human conditions, this perfect discipline of obedience through suffering, was a humiliation. But it was in no sense a degradation. On the contrary, it was a crowning of Christ with glory and honor in order that he might taste death for every man. “For it became him, for whom are all things and by whom are all things, in bringing many sons to glory, to make the captain of their salvation perfect through suffering.” If the Epistle to the Hebrews teaches anything, it certainly teaches this. The humanity of Jesus was not the veiling but the unveiling of the divine glory. The limitations, temptations, and sufferings of manhood were the conditions under which alone Christ could accomplish the greatest work of the Deity—the redemption of a sinful race. The seat of the divine revelation and the center of the divine atonement was and is the human life of God.—*Henry Van Dyke, D.D., LL.D., in “The Gospel for an Age of Doubt.”*

## THE CENTRAL ELEMENT OF ORGANIZED MATTER.

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I. A NEWLY discovered element always excites great interest among students of chemistry. This is true, though the discovery may have no practical, that is, economic value whatever, for many questions of interest arise concerning its properties and chemical conduct. One important question concerning such a new-found citizen is its place in the periodic table of elements, as was shown in the article of

last month. The recently discovered elements in the atmosphere well illustrate this.

Yet one element among the best and earliest known, and around which by far the greater part of the chemist’s investigations for a century have centered, still retains the chief place in his interest. It is to a study of this element and its compounds that the science of chemistry is largely, if not mainly, indebted for its present development. It is by its study that the chemist hopes

to penetrate still deeper into the secrets of the molecular and atomic world; that he hopes, perhaps, yet to discover the secret of all secrets. The element carbon, in its uncombined form, is familiar as charcoal and anthracite, somewhat less so as plumbago, and still less familiar, at least to most, as the diamond—very different forms of the same substance, but that each is really carbon is proved by the fact that, on being burned in pure oxygen, they all alike produce carbon dioxide. This property, by virtue of which an element can exist in such dissimilar forms, is not peculiar to carbon. Oxygen has the same property, its two forms being the normal oxygen and an unstable modification known as ozone. The same property is also exhibited by phosphorus, of which there are four known varieties, and by sulphur, of which there are several varieties. The difference in the two forms of oxygen is found to depend upon the fact that the molecule of normal oxygen contains two atoms, while that of ozone contains three. No satisfactory explanation has been given of the difference between the varieties of phosphorus, sulphur, and carbon. It will probably be shown to be due to the way in which the atoms are grouped in the molecule, and perhaps also to the grouping of the molecules to form masses.

The principal form in which carbon occurs in nature is in chemical union with other elements; thus it occurs, not only in living things, but in their fossil remains, as in coal. Petroleum, the formation of which is believed by most chemists to be due to the decomposition of submarine life through geologic time, is composed of a large number of compounds, the most of which contain only carbon and hydrogen. Most products of plant life contain the element carbon with hydrogen and oxygen, among the most common and useful of which are such substances as sugar and cellulose. The products of animal life contain carbon combined with oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, among which are such substances as albumen, casein, and fibrin. Carbon occurs too in the well-known carbon dioxide

of the atmosphere, of which it forms about 1-25000th part. It occurs also as salts of carbonic acid or carbonates. These carbonates—limestones, dolomites, chalks—form whole mountain ranges, and thus carbon is an important constituent of the very rock crust of the earth. Carbon is the central element of organized matter. "There is not a living thing, from the minutest microscopic life to the hugest mammal, from the tiniest cryptogam to the huge California redwood, which does not contain carbon as an essential constituent."

The number of compounds which it forms is almost infinite, though these compounds are produced by a union of carbon with a very few elements, viz.: hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur, and phosphorus. These compounds are commonly treated together under the head, "organic chemistry." It is now known that there is no good reason for this except convenience, partly the outgrowth of custom. It was formerly believed that organic compounds, since they are elaborated under the influence of life processes, must have something about them which distinguishes them from inorganic compounds, in whose formation the life processes take no part. While this belief, which amounted almost to fetichism, prevailed, there could, of course, be no successful study of the carbon compounds found in organized bodies. But in 1828 Wöhler, an eminent German chemist, then a teacher at Berlin, succeeded in preparing urea artificially. Up to this time urea, like other organic compounds, was thought to be intimately and necessarily connected with life. But it was thus shown that it could be formed without the intervention of life. Indeed, it was ultimately built up in the laboratory from its elements. Gradually, since that time, the artificial preparation, by purely chemical means, of other compounds of carbon found in the organs of plants and animals, has been accomplished, until, as has been said, the term "organic chemistry" has no longer any real significance. It has thus gradually become evident that the formation of the compounds of carbon is not dependent upon life processes, but

that they are simply chemical compounds, governed by the same laws that govern other chemical compounds. With the acceptance of this truth, chemistry took a great step forward, or rather was in a position to do so, for much of the progress, in theoretical chemistry especially, has been gained by the study of the nature and conduct of these compounds of carbon.

At ordinary temperatures carbon is a very inactive element. Thus if left in contact with almost any one of the elements, no chemical union takes place. It will not combine with any element unless the temperature is raised to what is known as its combining temperature—a characteristic not peculiar to carbon, as many of the elements have their peculiar combining temperatures, an illustration of the fact that heat, or rather temperature, is an important factor in chemical reaction. Temperature, indeed, is not only a determining factor of chemical affinity, but of valency as well; that is, it often determines not only whether any union between elements shall take place, but also the proportion in which such combinations shall occur. This illustrates again the intimate relation which exists between the so-called physical and chemical properties of matter.

The elements chlorine, oxygen, nitrogen, and hydrogen being gaseous, and the compounds of the first three with hydrogen being also gaseous, it is comparatively easy to study their volumetric relations. This, as we have seen, was done by Dalton and his successors in founding our modern science of chemistry. But carbon has never been obtained in the form of a gas. It has never even been melted, though in the high temperatures of the electric arc some forms of it have been softened; hence it is impossible to determine the ratio between carbon gas and that of other gases, or to determine directly its atomic weight by the method based on the law of Avogadro.

Direct union of hydrogen and carbon can be obtained by means of the electric current. If an electric arc light be surrounded by an atmosphere of hydrogen, the carbon of the pencil and the hydrogen combine to form

acetylene gas, the molecule of which has been shown to be composed of two atoms of carbon united with two atoms of hydrogen. This gas may be produced in still other ways. In 1894 Moissan, the celebrated French chemist, discovered a method for preparing it which has since been exploited in this country for the production of acetylene as an illuminant, as the gas has a very high illuminating power.

When any organic matter, which it will be remembered always contains carbon, is decomposed without free access of oxygen, the final product is a gas known as methane, or, more commonly, marsh gas, the molecule of which is represented by the formula  $\text{C H}_4$ , that is, its molecule contains one atom of carbon and four of hydrogen.

Petroleum is composed of a mixture of hydro-carbons. So again when wood or soft coal is heated without access of oxygen, the hydro-carbons of ordinary illuminating gas are given out. The number of hydro-carbons is now very great and others are constantly being made or discovered. As has been seen, carbon is distinguished for the number of its compounds; the simplest of these are the hydro-carbons. There are certainly more than four hundred of these already known, most of which have, however, comparatively simple relations to one another, so that, though their number is great, their study is not so difficult as one might imagine.

When petroleum escapes from the earth it is mixed with a number of gases; the simplest of these is found to be composed of one atom of carbon and four of hydrogen, the marsh gas mentioned above; the next simplest of two atoms of carbon and six of hydrogen; the next three atoms of carbon and eight of hydrogen, and so on. So that, so far as composition is concerned, these substances bear to each other a simple relation, each differing from the next below it by an atom of carbon and two of hydrogen to the molecule. They thus form a series known in organic chemistry as the marsh gas series. This relation is known as homology, and such a series is known as a homologous series. Now carbon is distinguished from

all other elements by its power to form homologous series, and herein lies one of the reasons for its importance and for its great and never-ceasing interest to the chemist. The explanation of this homology between the compounds of carbon is of the utmost value in the science and is based on the view, first, that carbon is quadrivalent—in other words, a carbon atom has the power to hold in chemical combination four atoms of hydrogen; and, second, that carbon has the power to unite with itself in chains. Indeed, so far does this last power exhibit itself that compounds of carbon and hydrogen have been made in the laboratory, which contain as many as sixty atoms of carbon to the molecule.

Besides this series, known as the marsh gas series, the simplest member of which is marsh gas, there are other homologous series; one, for example, begins with a gas containing two atoms of carbon and four of hydrogen; each succeeding term, as in the marsh gas series, differs from the one below it by one atom of carbon and two of hydrogen to the molecule. Another series begins with acetylene gas, already mentioned, and still another, known as the benzene series, begins with benzene, with six atoms of carbon and six of hydrogen to the molecule, each member in these series differing from the one below it, as in the former cases. The relations between the different members of these series, and between the series themselves, have now been extensively studied.

Mainly through these and similar studies a foundation of fact has been gradually acquired, on which have been built up many of the most important laws and theories of chemistry. The amount of painstaking and skilled research which has been given to these compounds—research to which many able men have devoted themselves for a lifetime—illustrates the methods of modern chemistry, and, indeed, of all modern science. Modern science questions nature minutely and skilfully for her facts, and from the facts so discovered seeks to deduce the laws of her action. Until Lavoisier, chemists too often sought for facts that

they might substantiate some favorite theory. Thus for a long time chemists sought to support the phlogiston theory, which Lavoisier's work was so largely instrumental in finally destroying. The influence of this modern method, introduced by physical science, in shaping all our other thinking has been most important. Of this perhaps something more hereafter.

Only one or two of the simpler facts derived from the study of these compounds of carbon can be noticed in this article. Let us try to picture the relation between the members of the marsh gas series—a relation which is at once highly interesting, simple, and important. To begin with, the marsh gas molecule is a single carbon atom surrounded by four hydrogen atoms. It has been found that carbon cannot be made to combine with a larger proportion of hydrogen; nor does the carbon atom form a complete molecule with a less proportion of hydrogen than this. Again, it has been shown beyond a doubt that there is no difference between the relations which the hydrogen atoms in the molecule of methane bear to the carbon atom, or to each other. What the relative position of the hydrogen and the carbon atoms in methane is, that is, whether the molecule has a definite structure, like that, for example, of the framework of a house or other building, and, if so, whether this structure may be known, are questions which have been studied with great ingenuity and patience, as yet with no very conclusive results, though recent investigation seems to show that the carbon atoms react as if their attraction for the hydrogen atoms were exerted along four lines connecting the center of a sphere with four points symmetrically grouped upon its surface, these four points corresponding to the angles of a regular tetrahedron.

Imagine now a number of such groups or molecules, from each one of which one of the hydrogen atoms has been removed; the resulting groups are unsaturated molecules. This term "unsaturated" is used in contrast with "saturated." The latter expression is understood to signify that the compound has no power to unite



directly with other compounds or elements, as is the case with marsh gas itself. By the former term is meant, on the other hand, a compound which can take up elements or other compounds directly. This, then, is the case with our molecules of marsh gas, from each of which we have imagined a hydrogen atom split off. If these unsaturated molecules are brought into proper relations, they will react on each other, uniting two and two, carbon atom to carbon atom, by means of the affinity which was at first satisfied by the hydrogen atom, which we have imagined to be removed. What will be the composition of the molecules so formed? They must consist of two atoms of carbon

and six of hydrogen, expressed by the symbol  $C_2 H_6$ . But this is the second member of our marsh gas series. Thus we have the relation between the first and second members of the series, and, in an identical way, the relation may be traced between subsequent members of this series and between the different members of all the homologous series. Nor is this any mere fancy sketch. This has in many cases actually been done, so that the many hydro-carbons now fall naturally into their places like good soldiers, and, instead of a mob of compounds, we have a thoroughly organized hydro-carbon army with which to march forward to other victorious investigations.

## FACTORY LIFE AND LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND.

BY A. M. ANDERSON.

TO write, even briefly, of factory life in England without either assuming some study by the readers of the laws which form its framework or, in default of that, to give some clues to the extent and operation of those laws would be as fruitless a task as to write a history of the English people without tracing the growth of self-government and parliamentary institutions, or a history of the influence of Rome on Europe without telling of her jurisprudence.

The future of the factory system in England now cannot be thought of as otherwise than guided and controlled by the great body of legislation which has been probably more surely and gradually built up upon experience and experiment than any other group of laws; whether the laws compared are groups of English laws or the English factory laws as against similar more recent industrial codes in other manufacturing countries. It is such a reflection that yields perhaps the most fruitful and instructive point of approach for the subject of this paper, although the aim in view is certainly far rather to be instructive as to the present than prophetic of the future.

In the view of the writer, moreover, it is

impossible to be either helpful or interesting in writing of the existing English factory system without a passing attempt to point the reader back to a study of its antecedents in a momentous struggle of the first half of this century. I refer to the struggle between the supporters, on the one hand, of an "individualism" which threatened not merely the liberty of the working population but the future of the nation in the lives of its children, through the working of the uncontrolled forces set loose by the "industrial revolution," and the advocates, on the other hand, of a social control of these forces.

A very brief examination of the appalling records of disease and suffering, immorality and misery, too often cruelty and death, disclosed both in such contemporary literature as Alfred's "History of the Factory Movement" and in the weighty reports of the early parliamentary committees, will illustrate my point fully for those who desire to satisfy themselves as to the facts on which it is not intended here to further dwell. Little as those engaged in the actual struggle to obtain legislation seem to have realized it at the time, overshadowed as their minds were by the gigantic abuses that had to be met and overcome, the actual

function of the legislator was far less to impose an external rule, binding on both employers and employed in the factory, than to draw out an order from within the system itself; an order in which the will of both masters and workers ought to find expression. It is most striking in the history of the movement how often the wish of a few of the best manufacturers has anticipated the desires of the workers, and even now in watching the operation of the latest additions to the factory "code" the observer may note that this evolution is still going on and that the legislator appeals as frequently to the experience of the best employers as to the general needs of the workers to guide him into the possible paths of progress and reform.

The term "factory," which has a different meaning in different European countries, has not always had the same meaning in England throughout this century. It would take too long to trace out the successive meanings in our statute book, and here it must suffice simply to suggest its present meaning. In our factory laws a *workshop* is distinguished from a *factory*, and although as to limitations and inspection they are under nearly the same rules, it is in the latter that all the strictest requirements as to hours of children, young persons, and women, and general sanitation and safety most fully apply. The reason for this is mainly historical, springing from the earlier great need in the larger work places where mechanical power was applied to machinery, but recent legislation, both in England and in some of the colonies, *e. g.*, New Zealand, seems to foreshadow a time when, as far as possible, the limitations will be similar in all. The general distinction between a factory and workshop is that in the first, in the majority of cases, machinery driven by mechanical power is used in the making of articles for sale (by means of manual labor exercised for gain) and that, in the latter, mechanical power is absent. There are, however, a number of so-called "factories," such as lucifer-match works, tobacco works, earthenware works, fustian-cutting works, some of them specially unhealthy, in which power is not

used, and in which the strictest requirements of the factory acts as to hours, meal-times, holidays, ventilation, sanitation, etc., nevertheless apply. The annual report of Her Majesty's chief inspector of factories, issued last month, shows that during 1897 there were under inspection (by a total staff of 107 inspectors) no fewer than 200,000 factories and workshops, employing at least 4,500,000 persons, and the following table will illustrate the recent growth of manufacturing industry:

	Workshops. employees.	Workshop employees.	Factories.	Factory employees.
1895.....	71,424	547,615	62,584	3,555,860
1896.....	81,669	655,565	79,279	3,743,418
1897.....	122,274	*	85,627	*

From the point of view of administration these figures indicate very readily that enormously larger though the industrial population employed in factories, as distinguished from workshops, may be, the task of inspecting and enforcing the law in the latter forms a very large proportion of the whole. To obtain any conception of the proportion of manual workers employed in manufacturing industry, complete returns, not yet accessible, would have to be examined of outworkers employed by manufacturers in the work which they take to their own homes. To this immense class are applied certain regulations, of which may especially be mentioned those contained in the truck acts. These are administered by the factory inspectors, and, briefly, provide that wages shall be paid in full in current coin of the realm without fines or deductions, unless the worker has agreed in a contract to these fines or deductions as reasonable—a much-valued and much-needed safeguard of the fundamental interests of a specially dependent class of workers.

Returning to factory workers, the first question that suggests itself is: What proportion of the 3,743,418 employed in 1896 were under the fullest protection afforded by law, and what are the chief features of that protection? Women, young persons (under eighteen years), and children are the persons who share in the benefits both of limitation of hours and of the provisions

\* Returns not yet issued.

for sanitation and safety. These persons, described as "protected persons," number 1,648,231, of whom more than half are under eighteen years of age, and of the latter, 62,613 are under fourteen and work on the "half-time system" from the age of eleven years upward; the remainder, adult males, work only under the protection afforded by the provisions for sanitation and security against accident, except in certain peculiarly unhealthy industries, where, since the Factory Act of 1895 came into force, the secretary of state has power by order to limit their hours, as well as those of women and children. Thus, in principle, limitation of hours to a reasonable or healthful maximum is in effect conceded for all workers.

The question of special regulation for unhealthy or dangerous industries has come with great persistence before the public of late years, and changes and advances, particularly in provisions for safeguarding the life and health of women and young persons, are in steady progress. In a few processes the employment of one or both of these classes of persons has been entirely forbidden; for instance, neither women nor persons under eighteen may work in the white beds of white lead factories; and in certain vulcanizing rooms in india-rubber works, where carbon bisulphide is used, young persons and children are excluded, while men and women may not work for longer than two and a half hours at a stretch, nor for more than five hours in one day. These prohibitions follow on many detailed and minute rules for minimizing various dangers (by mechanical ventilation, means of personal cleanliness, prohibition of meals in workrooms, etc.). They are among the most recent and important steps of the last few years, and the reports of departmental committees and the scheduling, step by step, of further industries by secretary of state's orders point in the direction of ever-growing and more scientific care over the lives of workers of all ages and both sexes. So great are the developments of the principle of protection of human life and limb in manufacturing industry, first fought and first won in England, and now being scien-

tifically applied not only in England but in some cases more rapidly in other European countries.

In the task of bringing to light the special sufferings and needs of women and girls, in factories generally and in unhealthy processes particularly, much reliance has been in recent years placed in England upon the services and inquiries of specially qualified and officially appointed women. The largest movement in this direction was in 1892, when four ladies were appointed as assistant commissioners to the Royal Commission on Labor. The result of their inquiries all over Great Britain and Ireland was embodied in a report and was specially exhaustive in certain representative centers of industry (such as the chief manufacturing towns in Lancashire and Yorkshire, and in Nottingham for the various branches of the textile industry, Staffordshire for the potteries, Newcastle, Sheffield, etc., for white lead works, Leeds, Manchester, etc., for wholesale clothing, and so on). These ladies were concerned with inquiry into rates of wages of women as compared with men, as well as the effects of women's industrial employment on their health, morality, and the home; but the most impressive results of their inquiry bore upon questions of sanitation and health and have left great and permanent traces on factory administration, as well as legislation. One of their number was, at the close of the inquiry, appointed permanently as a special labor correspondent for women's industrial conditions to the statistical department of the Board of Trade, and another, Miss Abraham, was appointed the first, with one other lady, of Her Majesty's women inspectors of factories under the Home Office. The reports of these inspectors and others afterward added to the staff (now numbering five), have appeared annually since 1893, and form a most important guide to the modern social aspects of the employment of women and children in factories, and to the grave questions of improved hygiene and fuller protection of young life.

What are in outline the general conditions, not touching upon the special manufactur-

ing process, which should be found in any factory, and which are enforced by the general staff of Her Majesty's inspectors?

In every factory and workshop there should be found affixed an abstract of the law which has been prescribed by the secretary of state and especially made clear enough for both workers and employers to study and comprehend; and affixed with it should be notices relating to hours, meal-times, weekly half-holidays, and annual holidays.

In every factory and workshop there must be sufficient cubic space (at least 250 cubic feet for each person, and, in some circumstances, more) and ventilation; and the ventilation must be by mechanical means if dust or fumes arise in the manufacture. Work-places must be kept in a cleanly condition, and in every case there must be suitable, sufficient, sanitary provision, separate for the sexes.

It should be observed that these general health provisions are, in workshops, as distinct from factories, primarily supervised by the officers of the local sanitary authority, not by the factory inspectors of the Home Office. This was a devolution of some of the immense work of the latter department which was effected by the Factory Act of 1891, but it is still in the power of the factory inspectors to take note of the work done, and, if necessary, to act in default of the local authority. The provision for maintaining a reasonable temperature in workrooms, which was added in the Factory Act of 1895, is entirely under the control of the government inspectors, as are the other provisions in factories for health and safety. The influence of the women factory inspectors in these sections of their work may be best indicated by a quotation from their report in 1895. Miss Deane in that year made a special inquiry concerning sanitation in the Midland and Black country districts.

Contrary to my expectations, I found that the sanitary condition in factories where women were employed compared in no way favorably with that obtaining in workshops, although the larger number employed in factories makes the matter of even more importance. I have been glad to find that in some cases the unsatisfactory conditions have been

remedied by employers when once their attention has been called to the subject, and the satisfaction with which such changes have been received by the women becomes almost pathetic when it is recollected that a healthy and decent condition is not, after all, such an overwhelmingly beneficent privilege. I regret that in too many cases the long-continued negligence in this matter has produced the inevitable consequence of a low standard of tone and behavior, the blame for which should in justice be thrown upon the carelessness which has permitted such conditions, rather than (as is too frequently the case) upon the unfortunate victims of such a state of affairs. The eagerness with which the women have received me, as a woman, and the fact that by far the larger number of complaints I have received relate to insanitary conditions in factories, seems to emphasize the need which exists for such an inquiry.

In the Irish northern linen districts the women inspectors also found that

the difficulties on this point have been much enhanced in certain instances where the erection of large factories and rapid influx of population has turned small villages almost suddenly into manufacturing towns, while no measures have been taken to meet the increased requirement by a corresponding advance in the method of sanitation, the primitive and chaotic condition of which has produced very unsatisfactory and deplorable results. Apart, however, from the general view of the requirements of a whole neighborhood, we found a general lack of adequate or suitable arrangements in the mills and factories—such accommodation as existed often grievously wanting in the first elements of decency, and generally opening directly into the hot, steaming spinning or weaving sheds, an arrangement which results, where the sheds are mechanically ventilated, in an indraught of foul air, a consequence almost certain to follow when the sanitary arrangements open directly into the workrooms.

In the report for 1896 it appears that quite a large proportion of complaints relate to temperature.

Few provisions of the last act have been received with more openly expressed gratitude by the workers, many of whom suffered severely from the lack of such a regulation. There are, however, instances in which difficulties arise; it is a very common practice to obtain the required warmth by means of constantly flaring gas-lights, an unwholesome method of heating which inevitably results in vitiated atmosphere. This provision, moreover, is of no advantage to the number of little children and growing girls and boys employed in some of our largest industries; there are many places where the temperature, having regard to the necessities of the work which is carried on, cannot, it is said,

be called unreasonably high, which nevertheless appear eminently unfitted, in this respect, for the children and young persons who work in them. Any one who had noted the scantily-clad little figures, their faces often beaded with perspiration, who pass to and fro in the cotton-spinning, weaving, and winding rooms or in flax-spinning and weaving rooms in a temperature of 80 to 86 degrees, must feel convinced that to work constantly in this high temperature cannot but be injurious to the undeveloped little frames and constitutions. Where they are employed on errands between one room and another, the case is worse, for the frequent transition in winter from the super-heated rooms to the freezing air outside them is a continued danger. It would be well if children and young persons could be debarred from working in a temperature above a certain height, for apart from the direct risks to creatures too young to take proper precautions against the sudden change of atmosphere when leaving at night, the relaxing effect of living practically all day in such a temperature must tell harmfully on unformed constitutions.

If one were trying to give illustrations, by means of striking contrasts, of the change from the old industrial world before power-driven machinery was the basis of manufacture to the present, one would probably turn first to the record of accidents in factories and workshops. Failing any records of industrial accidents last century, when factories in the modern sense did not exist, the comparison of the two classes of work-places now is sufficiently instructive. Out of 658 fatal accidents and 39,816 non-fatal accidents, only 3 fatal and 77 non-fatal occurred in workshops! If to this record is added the 1,239 cases of poisoning of various kinds (lead, phosphorus, arsenic, anthrax) in unhealthy industries, it will be seen how gigantic is the problem still before factory reformers who aim at the fuller safeguarding of life, health, and limb in manufacture. What proportion of these most striking figures affect the classes of workers hitherto specially distinguished as "protected persons"—namely women and persons under eighteen? Of children under fourteen years 224 were victims of accidents, 4 being fatal; of persons under eighteen years, 5,176 were victims of accidents, 73 being fatal; of women over eighteen years, 1,668 were victims of accidents, of which 9 were fatal.

From these statistics it is clear that the great majority of accidents affect the "unprotected" persons, namely adult male workers; but to a great extent this is the result of the fact that the more dangerous occupations are filled by men, and is not due to greater care in safeguarding machinery at which women work, all machinery alike, whether worked by men or women, being under the fencing clauses of the acts; in the textile industry, where women are so largely employed, far more than half of all the accidents affecting women occur. If we turn to the reported cases of poisoning, it is to be observed that there is no such striking disproportion between men and women, although in many of the unhealthy industries men are employed in larger numbers than women. Out of the 1,239 cases of poisoning, 506 affected women or girls, and 504 of these were cases of lead-poisoning (the majority arising in china and earthenware and white lead works). It is the opinion of experts that female workers are peculiarly susceptible by constitution to the influences of this poison, and this opinion would appear to account for the recorded proportion.

Turning now to the consideration of limitation of hours in factories, the most important step that has been taken in recent years is in the general prohibition of overtime for young persons. The hours in all factories and workshops except laundries must be fixed within the outside limits of a round of the clock, *e. g.*, 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., 7 a. m. to 7 p. m., 8 a. m. to 8 p. m. In certain industries, but not in any textile industries, overtime is allowed to women for an extra hour and a half on not more than thirty nights in a year, but this must be notified, before it begins, to both workers and the inspector for the district. Meal-times must be fixed, and cannot be changed without notice to the inspector. In textile factories there must be two hours' rest for meals, and in other factories and in workshops one and a half hours' rest in the twelve. Work may not be taken home from the factory at the end of the day by any child, nor by any woman or young per-



son who has worked before as well as after the dinner hour. This last has been a difficult rule to bring into force at first, but a good many firms who break it have been prosecuted and are now conforming.

Overtime is not worked in factories to so great an extent as in workshops, and if the two are taken together, considerably more than two thirds of all the overtime in the kingdom is worked in the making up of wearing apparel; if this latter occupation is considered alone, workshops, *i. e.*, millinery and dress-making establishments, work nearly ten times as much overtime as is worked in the great clothing factories. As Miss Abraham reported several years ago, there always have been among employers in season trades "firms who by wise management meet, without recourse to overtime, the demands of their customers and the competition of others in the trade," and this should "remove the seeming conflict of interests between the gratification of some few hundreds of inconsiderate people (customers) on the one hand, and on the other hand the health of several thousands of women and girls." Since these words were written, the employment of girls and boys under eighteen in overtime in season trades has been made illegal, so far as I know with general satisfaction. Laundries are under a much more elastic scheme of hours than other factories and workshops, and the period of employment may vary from day to day, and very excessive spells of work are reported to be often found.

The employment of children as half-timers (*i. e.*, alternately morning and afternoon, or on alternate days in school and factory) in factories is at the present time,

far more than overtime employment of adults, a subject of interest to the general public. An agitation in the press has been in progress for some time in favor of raising the age of employment of children from eleven to fourteen years, or even higher. The Lancashire operatives, whose children form the largest single section of the whole body of "half-timers" (namely 29,506 out of 53,256) in textile industries, seemed until lately to be the chief opponents of any change in this direction. These workers were, however, represented in the Trade Union Congress of this year, which has passed a resolution in favor of the change in question. It was in 1895 that the women inspectors reported as follows:

While we feel that some reform in this direction must before very long be attempted, we are anxious to express our hope that when an alteration is made it will be of so thorough a character that it really affects its end. A simple prohibition of employment without any increased control of the movements of the children through improved requirements as to school attendance, may simply mean that the children pass into uncontrolled occupations—for instance, as errand-boys and girls, newspaper boys, sweepers, etc., in shops. Any change would be most undesirable which merely tended to swell the ranks of these classes of workers with the children who are now at least under some kind of supervision in the factories.

Factory legislation began in the year 1802 with an act to provide for the health and morals of children as "apprentices" in factories; in the last decade of the century it is still an unsettled question in England whether children shall have their best, growing years completed in school and playground before beginning the struggle of life as bread-winners.

(*End of Required Reading for December.*)

## WOMAN'S WORK IN THE WAR.

BY ETTA RAMSDELL GOODWIN.



MRS. PORTER.

**N**EARLY every woman in the United States would have liked to change places with the men who put on the uniform last spring. They did not want war and they did not want their men-folk to go to war, but they had their little savage wishes nevertheless, and to be a soldier and a fighter to each feminine imagination seemed to be the most desirable thing in all this world. As she could not be a fighter, the American woman was inspired by the conviction that the career of an army nurse was the career for which she had come upon earth. The prospect of wearing a becoming uniform and fanning sick officers doubtless was what inspired some of the many thousand who made application for positions as nurses, but with the majority it was simply the unconquerable and passionate wish to do something,

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to have a part in the great war work. All women could not be nurses, nor the mothers of nurses, but those who stayed at home found an occupation, and in spirit they all took for their motto the war-cry of the women in the state organization of the Red Cross Society in Minnesota, not "Remember the Maine," but "Remember the Men."

Some time when the public is tired of its investigation committees and has wearied of the task of trying to fix the responsibility for some of the unnecessary hardships suffered in the campaign it will have the time to ponder over the fact that there has been no need for investigation committees when there has been a question of the work that women have done in this war. Civilian appointments into the service of the Red Cross have not been the occasion of public

howling. The officer-women have developed unexpected executive strength and intelligence, the privates heroic endurance and zeal. And the officers among the women have not hesitated to become privates when occasion came and to depart from the work of giving orders to the sphere of personal service.

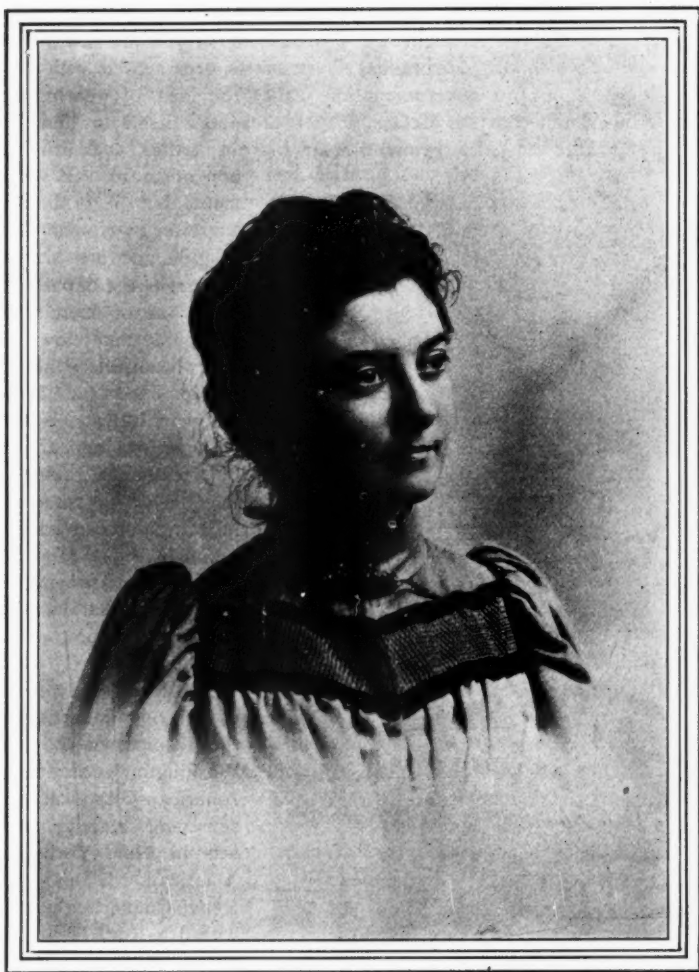
Miss Barton's work on the field of Santiago consisted partly in directing others, but that did not prevent her from walking about continuously for several days in the rain and almost knee-deep in mud, searching for wounded men in out-of-the-way corners of the battle-ground and many times cooking with her own hands the food that saved their lives. Helen Gould was assistant director general of the Woman's War Relief Association when her predecessor in the office, Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth, was transferred to Camp Wikoff, and she was showing consummate business ability which was almost as valuable to the society as what she gave in money; she was establishing diet kitchens; she had turned her home in Irvington into what she called a quartermaster's department, where all sorts of schemes to provide comforts for the soldiers were being carried out; she was establishing resting-places where soldiers who were adrift in the city could find shelter, and she was giving of her fortune sums of money which in all amounted to at least \$130,000, but she never was as happy as when she was able personally to minister to the sick and needy, to find out what was wanted and to supply that want then and there. Her sweet presence and exquisite smile, kind, handsome eyes, and trig, slender figure always will be remembered by the soldiers who were quartered in the hospitals near New York, but it is to be feared that the public will never have an opportunity to become acquainted with the features of this popular heroine of the war, as she has never allowed her photograph to be given to any publication and no authentic photograph of her has ever appeared in print.

When women went into the camps the death-rate decreased. Gen. Joseph Wheeler

has called women "the power behind the men who stood behind the guns." Lieut.-Col. Charles Dick of Ohio, the good friend of President McKinley, admitted to one of the officers of the Red Cross that what comforts the soldiers had in the war came from the Red Cross. A few thousand of our men have taken the trouble to put into writing their gratitude to the vast relief organization, some going so far as to express their conviction that the relief that came to them through the Red Cross saved them from actual starvation, and it has come to pass that even the medical department of the army, which took a strong stand at the beginning of the war against the admission of women into the field of army work, handsomely have abandoned their position and have acknowledged that women have earned the right to help to run the relief work machine.

The most significant example of this change of ground was shown in the appointment of a woman to the position of acting assistant surgeon with the rank and pay of captain in the United States army, and perhaps Surgeon-General Sternberg did not fully realize the importance of the step he was taking when he presented the commission to Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee. It happened in this way. At the beginning of the war the Daughters of the American Revolution felt that, owing to its splendid organization, their body was particularly well fitted to carry on a systematic scheme of war work. The different chapters recognized as an appropriate duty the task of caring for the families of soldiers and sailors, but the organization as a whole was ambitious to be distinguished for some special service. At the suggestion of Dr. McGee it adopted the plan of providing a reserve corps of trained nurses upon which the government could draw according to its need. The visions of the projectors of the plan were far-seeing enough to prevent discouragement even in the face of the announcement made to them by the surgeon-general, which in part read:

No trained nurses are needed at present and I am uncertain what our requirements for the future may



DR. M'GEE.

be. It is not my intention to send any female nurses with the troops to Cuba, and in case we have a number of general hospitals established I expect to depend principally upon our trained men of the Hospital Corps for service as nurses in the wards.

The trained men referred to numbered about fifteen hundred souls. Knowing this, the D. A. R. Hospital Corps committee, which consisted of Dr. McGee, Miss Mary Desha, Mrs. Francis S. Nash, and Mrs. Amos G. Draper, went on with their work, giving to it more than twelve hours every day through the most trying summer that Washington has known in fifty years.

In addition to the Hospital Corps affairs there was business of importance in connection with the contributions which came pouring in from D. A. R. chapters in all parts of the country, sometimes in the form of supplies and in some cases as cash contributions. The total amount received in money was \$50,000. Five thousand nurses were examined by Dr. McGee. The examinations were so rigorous and in consequence the grade of nurses passed proved to be so high that the medical authorities in the army not only called upon the reserve, but recognized the value of the system through

which they were admitted and straightway established a rule by which all nurses taken into the employment of the government were obliged to be examined by Dr. McGee. She virtually became the head of a regiment

with shoulder-straps and brass buttons and short skirts ornamented with stripes, but in reality the idea of wearing a uniform never presented itself to her. She does wear bicycle clothes, even when she is in her office in the War Department, but it is because daily exercise is almost part of her religion, and her bicycle ride to and from the department is the only form of exercise for which she finds time now. She is a very beautiful woman, and although she has a little daughter ten years old she is a mere slip of a girl in appearance and it requires hard thinking to realize that such a girlish creature can be a high official under the government, a physician of prominence, an astronomer of international reputation, and the author of "Generations of N-Dimensional Space."

Nearly all the relief work in the war was carried on under the auspices of the Red Cross. Washington is the home of the American organization, but the center of activity in war-time was in New York, where the American National Red Cross Relief Committee was instituted with Rt. Rev. Henry C. Potter, bishop of New York, as chairman, in order to raise the neces-



MRS. GLENN.

of nurses, Protestant, Catholic, white, negro, and Indian.

There was a question of technical difficulty, however, in the possession of this authority by a civilian over persons who were enrolled in the service of the government, and Dr. McGee's commission came as the solution of this difficulty. She is the first woman ever formally appointed into the army as an officer. She was invited to the council of surgeons in Camp Wikoff, and in every way she has received in army departmental quarters the respect and attention to which her office entitles her. The newspapers tried hard to dress her in a uniform,

sary funds. Auxiliaries sprang up in New York and in nearly every part of the country, until at least eighty-nine were sending contributions. One of the most famous of these auxiliaries is known as Auxiliary No. 3. It has been a society for the maintenance of trained nurses and it has had among its members Mrs. Bayard Cutting, Mrs. Whitelaw Reid, and Bishop Potter's daughter, Mrs. Winthrop Cowdin. Its record for this summer is superb and it still is maintaining nurses at Fort Wadsworth, Fort Monroe, and in several other places.

The Red Cross women are exceeding proud of the system by which they work, and



especially of their relief ships and the manner in which they are loaded, because, owing to this system, perfected by Miss Barton, they carry all the honors when compared with the supply ships of the government. When a ship is to be loaded Miss Barton causes an exact plan to be drawn of the vessel, with dimensions marked. As supplies are carried on board the spot corresponding to the location in the ship is marked in the plan and the quantity also is registered. When anything is taken away the amount is recorded and confusion is unknown. The relief ship *State of Texas*, which, with Miss Barton on board, made its dramatic entrance into the harbor of Santiago after the great sea fight, carried a group of unusually interesting women. They were Mrs. John Addison Porter, wife of the secretary to President McKinley, Mrs. Bettina A. Hofker Lesser, the wife of Dr. A. Monnae Lesser, and Mrs. Joseph Gardner, whose husband gave that mammoth farm in Indiana known as Red Cross Park to the society. Mrs. Porter was with Miss Barton from early in June until after the first of August. She left her husband, who was quite as enthusiastic as she was, and her two little girls in order to carry out her patriotic mission. She showed how plucky a society woman sometimes can be; she risked fever at Siboney, replying to Miss Barton's remonstrance when she expressed her intention to go into the infected region: "If you can take the risk I can"; and she learned the Red Cross lesson, which is to go without meals and without sleep if the necessity comes, and to do it cheerfully. She was present when Colonel Roosevelt made his



MISS HAWLEY.

famous application to the Red Cross for dried apples and other stores, when he refused to move until they were given to him, and she helped to pack the burden of provisions on his broad shoulders and back.

Mrs. Lesser, the magnificently beautiful woman who was sister-in-chief in the New York Red Cross Hospital before the war came and who is a graduated surgeon, was

put in charge of the hospital tent which was established on the field of Santiago. Mrs. Gardner volunteered to act as cook, and it was she who prepared those health-giving gruels and the great kettlefuls of rice with prune sauce—a species of ration of which Miss Barton greatly approves. Mrs. Lesser stayed at her post until, in company with her husband and six nurses, she was stricken with yellow fever. She has recovered, but with the loss of much of her former vigor.



MRS. TANNER.

From the beginning of the war until the end and after, women who wanted to work for the cause of patriotism found plenty to do in Washington. The capital city did not contribute much to the cash funds of the relief societies, but money came in from other cities and women easily were found to see that it was well expended.

The attorney for the Red Cross is a woman, Mrs. Ellen Spencer Mussey. She is dean of the Washington College of Law, the only school in the District where a woman can take a course in law, and every one gives her the credit for many of the changes in the laws in the District governing the property rights of women. Mrs. Mussey is a charming woman, and in the midst of the war commotion and the added rush of business connected with the Red Cross, she was quite as likely to be found on her way to one of the army hospitals with her arms full of flowers as in her office. Mrs. Tanner, the wife of "Corporal" Tanner (one of the most frightfully wounded of all the survivors of the Civil War), is another exceedingly valuable member of the Washington committee. She is president of the Ladies' Union Veteran Legion, and she made it an auxiliary of the Red Cross. She began her war work with visits to the army hospitals, and especially to Fort Monroe, where she attended to the distribution of supplies for the first wounded in the early July battles, which were brought to Fort Monroe on board the *City of Washington*. Of her summer's work in Washington she says:

On my way to the boat one Sunday night I saw standing at the corner of the crossing at Seventh Street a train-load of sick soldiers, many of them lying on straw spread on the floors of the baggage car. Their train had stood there all the afternoon and it stood there until far into the night. For them the poor people of the neighborhood had taken dinners from the Sunday table, sheets and pillow cases from the beds, and change from their pockets.



DR. GREEN.

When the Red Cross arrived I was appointed with full power to look out for the needs of other cases. Two rooms were hired as headquarters from which to distribute supplies. A dozen gallons of milk, a small box of sandwiches, a couple of boilers of coffee, and some oranges were provided, and with half a dozen helpers we sat down to await the sick. They came; the very sick, the convalescent, and the well who were hungry. They came by thousands, and we were powerless to draw lines. All must be fed, and the work grew to enormous proportions. Our bread was bought by the hundreds of loaves, our butter and sugar and coffee by the hundreds of pounds, our milk by the hundreds of gallons, and the roll of helpers ran up to more than a score. It was no unusual thing for the workers to toil until two o'clock in the morning, only to be awakened at four for further duties. The sick who were so ill that it was desirable that they should be removed from the train were taken to hospitals.

Mrs. Tanner and Mrs. Mussey were the women who made the famous fight for the diet kitchen at Fort Myer and came out victorious. The Red Cross had dreams of

diet kitchens in every one of the army hospitals, but the medical department was against such schemes. The Red Cross women repeatedly went to the head of all things in the War Department, and finally Secretary Alger granted them permission to try their experiment. They were not encouraged; they were suffered to come. Their application for the use of a large and well-equipped kitchen which was unused during the entire summer was refused, but they built them a little frame structure for a kitchen and put up a little tent beside it, and Dr. Mary E. Green, who already had started a diet kitchen at Fort Thomas, was put in charge. No one knows more about the subject of diet than Dr. Green. She was judge of food products at the World's Fair, is president of the American Household Economic Association, and has lectured on dietary subjects from one end of the country to the other. In Fort Myer the tent was her home and the kitchen her work-room. She had three assistants, and soon the great hospital found itself supplied with gruels and jellies and custards of such a quality that the diet kitchen came to be known to the soldiers as

"heaven." Sixteen gallons of milk, fifty pounds of chicken, forty pounds of beef, and the same quantity of mutton are some of the items in the rations that the Red Cross daily was giving to the patients in the hospital. The surgeons were demonstrative in their gratitude, and before long the War Department itself recognized its debt to the diet kitchen and pledged itself to reimburse the Red Cross for what it had expended.

Some of the free lance assistance given by women not regularly connected with any

relief organization is worth telling of. Miss Harriet Hawley distinguished herself as much as any one and she has become famous for her war career. She has been interested in soldiers since she was a child, when her father, who at one time was adjutant-general in Minnesota, used to take her to the state encampments, where she was made a sergeant in Company B, Thirteenth Minnesota Regiment. Early last summer, when every day train-loads of soldiers would be side-tracked in Washington, Miss Hawley made it a duty to see, as far as one young woman could see, that the soldiers were



MRS. LESSER.



MRS. MUSSEY.

not hungry soldiers. She opened her home as a resting-place, and the quarters offered not being large enough she asked for the cooperation of several other women, hired rooms, solicited subscriptions, and established the "Soldiers' Rest." When the scheme was on a successful working basis the founder left it in charge of Mrs. Babcock, wife of Representative Joseph W. Babcock, Mrs. Mary F. Case, Mrs. Clifford Howard, Mrs. W. H. T. Simmons, and others, and went to Camp Wikoff, where she did splendid work in the quietest, gentlest way. She defied risk of contagion in the detention hospital, used her brains in contriving plans for the comfort of the soldiers and her will in getting them carried out, and left a memory of tenderest, sweetest service in the hearts of the soldiers.

Mrs. Glenn, who went out with the District of Columbia men, did not undertake to "mend, darn, wash the clothes, and see to the sanitary condition of the men in her command," as the bill which Senator Faulkner tried to have Congress pass prescribed as the duties of an army matron, but she

did much more than that. She went with the regiment in order not to be separated from her own boy, and at Chickamauga and later at Camp Wikoff she did for the other lads what their own mothers would have done if they had been there. Her special attention was devoted to those patients suffering from the illness whose unscientific name is "homesickness."

Among the women martyrs of the war was Miss Reubena Hyde Walworth, who gave up her life on October 18, dying from fever, with which she was attacked while at Camp Wikoff. She was the daughter of Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth, director general of the Woman's National War Relief Association, and was one of the most enthusiastic workers in the hospitals. When the war broke out she declared that as there were no men in her family (a family of famous soldiers) she would do her part in the war as a nurse, and she took a course of training to prepare herself for her work. She and Miss Wheeler, the daughter of General Wheeler, were fellow workers in the hospitals.

## THE EDUCATION OF BOYS IN ITALY.

BY MARGHERITA TRAUBE MENGARINI.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

THE comparative study of education in the various periods of history would illustrate very well what the Germans call the *Zeitgeist*, the spirit of the age. Such a study is important in order to know our modes of thought, our tendencies, and our aspirations. In our modern craze for education, started by Rousseau, the first thing that strikes us is the insistency of which our sons are victims. It is practically an unceasing persecution. They are no longer allowed to do anything on their own initiative. Rousseau says: "As soon as the child is born take possession of him, and don't leave him again until he is a man. You will never succeed unless you do this." The present educational fashion differs somewhat from Rousseau's ideal, yet is not less harmful on that account. We are morally superior to him, in that we no longer allow ourselves to set traps for our boys with the object of perfecting them. But Rousseau tormented his pupils much less than we do, because children were not so expensive in his day. They cost us too much now, physically, morally, financially. Our constant preoccupation for their education and comfort, our way of looking on them as precious and fragile objects are manifest signs of a general decadence, which have their counterpart in the diminution of births.

Fortunately the problem of education is a thing which concerns the cities alone. The country people still maintain the old method of education that has existed comparatively unaltered since the origin of our race. Nor have their affections undergone such sudden transformation, so far as we may judge from the history of human passions. Their children are well when they are well nourished and ill when they lack food. We hope that compulsory edu-

cation may prove an advantage to them, as it has in those countries where the inhabitants of the rural districts read the Bible and useful, instructive books. But when we speak of physical education we must not forget that our country people look out for their own to perfection, without instructors, without those games that are more or less English. Not yet degenerate, they feel their real needs much better than we. The countryman instinctively understands that strength and circumspection are of more use to him than agility and discipline, which are the causes of our nervous debility.

Any one who has practiced gymnastic exercises or had military drill will recall the great strain on the will and attention that is necessary in order to respond quickly to the word of command. These must be precious qualities for armies, but it is doubtful if they benefit individuals who live freely in the country. That the countryman is not in a hurry is necessary to his preservation. I remember that a German physiologist asked me one day how in the world the Italian peasants succeed in digesting so much *polenta*. I answered, "Because they eat slowly." Any one who has noticed how the peasants eat will say that I am right. A man living in the city will have finished a plate of food before the peasant has swallowed a mouthful. The capacity for chewing the food keeps pace with the loss of a good digestion among the inhabitants of the towns.

Children in the city are truly to be pitied. After the cares of the first years have passed, seasoned with cod liver oil and iron, they begin their studies in the kindergarten. If this were a real garden, where they could do everything they wished, within the limits of personal safety, it would be a fine institution for all work-



ing mothers. But kindergartens are simply privileged institutions for putting the first bridle, the first check, on individual initiative, for clipping the wings of the child's imagination. To give an idea of Froebel's system of education we need only cite at random a part of the index of the kindergarten manual: "The ball in the education of the senses; The ball in mental education; The ball in moral education." The first plaything which Froebel gives the child is a ball, which should be hung over the infant's cradle, to supply food to his mind, as it were, and also for the purpose of not allowing him to be idle for one moment in this, his initiation into education, at the very instant when his physical faculties begin to show themselves. When the time for cutting his second teeth has come, the child is already enrolled in the elementary schools. And here I know, by my own experience, that a boy of only moderate intelligence who is educated at home can easily obtain in two years, by studying one hour a day, the same results that the great majority do in five years and with four hours' daily schooling. After these five years, in which the teachers have done all they possibly can to deprive the boy of his natural happiness and joy, after a first attack on his constitution has been made by keeping him in unwholesome surroundings, the poor child enters the high school, where a noose of theoretical and practical knowledge is forever hanging over his head.

However much the programs of the secondary schools may have been revised and modified they can never form a logical whole. The defect lies in their origin, in the disparity of methods with which the various branches are imparted, in the mistake of believing that secondary education is a complete schedule of the scientific trend of our century. The first and most important instruction, that of the classical languages, is a remnant of the fashion prevailing in the first part of this century. It was then that Bopp created one of the most noble branches of science, the comparative philology of the Indo-Germanic

tongues. Pedagogy, which in the Germany of those days was wholly based on philology, made a fashion of this science in the secondary schools, and with Curtius' "Comparative Greek Grammar" the teaching and study of the classics were undermined in a manner that is perhaps irreparable. Our boys now begin the study of Latin and Greek elements, which they do not know, by comparing them with the Sanscrit, which they will never know. Thus they go over all the grammar, and when they have finished it they can remember nothing of it because the base, which is the natural one of all learning, is lacking, the only true science of memory, namely the strong impressions left on the brain by conceptions which strike the imagination.

I know an instructor who advises one to begin the study of any language whatever by merely reading and repeating some of the finest chapters of the Bible. This method of engraving a thing on the brain, as letters are sculptured on a rock, has this advantage, that rules learned with the words are never forgotten. The present method of teaching the classical languages was not introduced into the schools for pedagogical ends, but only out of love for a modern branch of science. Comparative philology is certainly a most noble study, but it was wrongly applied and in a place where it should never have entered.

The teaching of the natural sciences is likewise the result of the latest scientific fashions, and corresponds with sound pedagogical principles even less than comparative philology. The astonished boy must learn the physiology of sounds by studying languages together with the effects of the parallax; he must be present at experiments in physics and chemistry after having filled his head with classical reading. This style of instruction deprives the boy of the capacity for being surprised at nature's phenomena, by bringing them to his attention before he has reached the age of grasping them or investigating them. Instead of exciting the spirit of observation in him we labor to deaden it. He finally looks on repeated experiments with a weary

eye, and instead of receiving a fresh stimulus from them they remain with him as the impressions of facts seen but not understood, real callous places on the brain, making it obtuse to new impressions. We should not do violence to the child's brain by filling it with things for which it is not yet ripe.

Just as the experimental sciences have been introduced into the secondary schools because they are pleasing to us, so we have let the descriptive sciences fall into oblivion because these interest us now but little. But the descriptive natural sciences are exactly those which could better train the youthful mind to observation and accustom the youth to order and method. The same evil of carrying our modern passions into the schools is seen in regard to history. Historic sentiment is diminishing and irreverence for past generations is increasing. An immoderate idea of ourselves, or else invading jingoism, is urging us on to teach our sons modern history first and foremost, so as to furnish them with a foundation for a patriotic admiration of our forefathers. If we will only recall our own childhood we must confess that the deeds of Hercules and the exploits of the crusaders were much more sympathetic and easier to understand than modern political history. How shall boys grasp the importance of what is going on to-day if they do not know the past? They can never judge others equably if we begin to appeal to their self-love so early, by giving them to understand that their nation is the greatest, the one which has surpassed and still surpasses all others. But there is another evil, and this is that modern history taught in the schools necessarily becomes a history of political parties differently recounted by each one of these.

There remain the modern languages. No one certainly is so optimistic as to claim that the boys know French and German when they have finished school. And it appears that in Germany they are not better off than we are in this respect. The method of instruction is not the same in them

as in the other branches; it is an improvement on the methods there adopted. It has more of the pedagogical element in it and anticipates in a measure theoretical and experimental science. But on the whole our methods are founded on the single idea of keeping the boy busy from morning till night, by not allowing him the necessary time for thought and still less any opportunity for acting in his own way. If they were to be used with backward students, these methods perhaps would be excellent, but this of course is not the case. From this constant surveillance, from this incessant prompting, which begins early in the morning and ends late in the evening, comes surely the dulness of the youthful brain. His especial studies now finished, the boy has become a man before he has even begun the real life of responsibility toward himself and toward others. University studies begin late and young men enter on their career late. If the manner of effecting this beclouding of the brain were not so efficacious there would be no reason for occupying ourselves so much with the educational methods in vogue. But we are convinced that a strong brain and an iron will are needed in order to remain capable of energy and initiative, in order to still be independent after having undergone this false and forced education, which begins at the age of four with the kindergarten and ends at nineteen with the high school. To diminish the burden of the school programs and bring back the teaching of the classics to its primitive simplicity are the most urgent reforms at present. The pedagogue who merely refrains from introducing new things and takes away some of the old might be exalted to the rank of the most beneficent legislators, who pass no new laws, but abolish one already existing.

The methods of our education are the same as those that obtain in the other countries of Europe. The English alone make an exception that is worthy of note, for they occupy the boy to a much less degree, and, better than all, do not preoccupy him in the least. But the English

also arrive at harmful educational results in other ways, in sending the boy away from his family. Rousseau, too, went this road. He wished to remove the boy from the contagion of city life, and thus took him away from family influence. By putting our sons in the hands of people who are incapable of understanding their instincts and still more incapable of valuing family traditions, we expose them to the torture of a theoretical education, which, being based on general principles and not on the individual case, will be the more pernicious as the boy to whom it will be applied is the more individualized.

With the exception of a scientific education there is no question of pedagogy which can be solved in a general way, not even the question of corporal punishment. The sequestration of a boy in a boarding school carries with it the grave consequence that he does not become acquainted with his parents. He is cut off from family tradition. Boys in such schools are bound to learn everything from books and not from their own experience, nor the experience of others. This already constitutes a diminution in the sum total of wisdom to which a man may aspire.

The manner of the modern life, which possesses us all and rules our thoughts and our actions, is open to every one, formidable in its egoism and, like it, small and vulgar in all its manifestations. It is the style of a rented house, where nothing is made to stay. Even our friendships, our memories, our habits, and our customs must be movable. So our children are born as it were in a rented house, and grow up in an atmosphere of perpetual change—change of lodging, change of school, change of masters and friends. Little wonder that their faculties rarely arrive at that clearness of vision which was the characteristic of the old system of education.

After the education in the school has taken from the boy every idea of initiative, he reaches the point when he finds himself as a young man face to face with the world, that world with which he has truly

never had the time to put himself in contact. With an overloaded brain unsupported by any tie of tradition, feeling hereditary instincts working confusedly in himself, instincts which he cannot understand, he finally begins to study himself and so loses time in getting acquainted with his surroundings. He will find in the daily newspaper, in the books of art and science most in vogue, a certain number of directing ideas and motives which all follow and which will drag him also into the common current that he is unable to resist.

Never have so few dominant ideas invaded everything as to-day. The nations are imitating one another blindly, just like individuals. The differences of race are being attenuated, and the tendency toward imitation is steadily increasing. Modern society reflects the condition of our young men, when they come out from the artificial life of the schools, incapable of making a way for themselves and of living their own lives. It is not through any spirit of solidarity that we assume the errors of others as our own. It is through the hypnotism of the dominant ideas which each one feels for all the rest. The intellectual man seems more affected by cosmopolitanism than the others.

Among the tendencies that now rule Europe is the absurd one of wishing to teach things that are innate. Froebel teaches the newly born infants to use their little hands and accustoms them to fix their gaze on an object. Bourget, with his psychological school of novelists, teaches us to know our own heart. There is a savage people which, in order to honor a guest, chews up rice and puts it in his mouth. This is the ultimate limit to the check we put on individual initiative, a limit we have not yet reached. If we can do violence to our tendencies and modify our system of education so that young men may think with their own mind and approach life with a clear brain and sound nerves, they perhaps may some day be capable of making society enter on a more wholesome career than that in which it is now enlisted.

## THE BARRYS.

BY SHAN BULLOCK.

### CHAPTER III.

FOR a couple of hours, maybe, after the time of Hugh's going, Frank sat warming his thoughts in the glow of the peat fire; at last finding his eyelids heavy, rose, lighted the candle, blew out the lamp, and started for bed. The hall was in darkness; his steps rang on the flags; uncannily harsh came the shrilling of crickets from the kitchen hearth; the white steps of the stairs creaked and started beneath his feet; solemnly the clock on the landing ticked out the flying hours; with his candle raised, Frank hastened along the corridor, escaping, so you might think, from the silence and the ghosts.

Deep among the feathers in the mahogany four-poster, he slept well and long; woke at last in the fulness of the morning light. Across the bed-foot the sunshine fell golden; through the open window the air streamed wholesome; the house hummed with work and hurry; outside the cattle were lowing, the pigs squealing, the cocks tossing their shrill notes to the sky.

For a while Frank lay staring at the ceiling, thinking of Nan and her oval face, of Hugh and the exploits of the Prodigal; then fell to reading the texts on the wall, then to admiring the simplicity and cleanliness of his room—the shining plaster walls, the white floor with its strip of carpet, the wondrous patchwork counterpane, the spotless curtains, blinds, linen; at last, nine o'clock sounding from the clock on the landing, sprang out, dressed quickly, and hastened down stairs.

At the parlor door he paused; turned to the left and into the kitchen. On the hearth burned a great fire below a row of pots and kettles. Here and there about the cement floor were stools, painted chairs, chests, a large deal table, a high dresser shining in its array of tin and crockery ware; on the smoke-browned walls hung

harness, guns, whips, hay-twisters, shears, sieves, almanacs; in the chimney corner were shelves laden with medicine bottles, ointment jars, physic tins; from the rafters hung flitches, hams, strings of onions, dried fish, bundles of herbs. And there by the dresser, her skirts tucked up, arms bare to the elbows, face shining with health and work, stood Sally crashing the heavy beetle into a tub of steaming potatoes.

At sight of Frank, Sally turned, let fall her beetle, and volubly gave forth her morning greetings. Aw, the height of the morning to him; aw, but he was like his father; aw, but she hoped he had slept; aw, but he was welcome to the old country; aw, but he must be dying for his breakfast. So Sally rattled on, and smilingly Frank, with his back to the fire and his legs spread, listened to it all; smilingly, after a while, followed Sally and her tray up into the parlor. And there the firelight was dancing on the walls; the table drawn close to the hearth, spread with a snow-white cloth and set with flowered china and gleaming cutlery, with fresh soda cakes, crisp oaten bread, with jam and marmalade; and in the fender Frank's boots lay a-warming; and in the corner smoking-chair and paper awaited his pleasure; and last and best, on his plate lay a letter from Marian.

At sight of it all Frank's impressionable soul swells glad within him. He rubs his hands. "Why, Sally," says he, "this is mighty good; this is a real home-coming. Good luck to you, my girl." And Sally, flushing through her wrinkles, looks up admiringly, hopes God may bless Mr. Frank, wishes him a good appetite and all to his liking; then backs to the door and leaves him to his letter and his breakfast.

Frank took the letter from his plate, tore it open, and standing with his back to the fire, read it through. He seemed very content. Now and again he murmured a sen-

tence, repeating it softly and caressingly; now looked toward the window, a tender light shining in his eyes; at last, carried his letter to the table, propped it against the teapot, and, as he ate, read and read it again. "Dear Maid Marian," he said; presently took from his pocket-book a photograph and stood it by the letter. "Dear Maid Marian," said Frank; and as he looked his face was radiant.

He finished his breakfast, put the letter away, and, with the photograph in his hand, sat him down before the fire. He felt homesick—call it lovesick. He wished he could see Marian, just for a while. Ah, he liked her so well. Ah, how the lovelight shone in her eyes that minute of the parting; how vividly he remembered her face, that living face, set in curls, firm, steadfast, beautiful, lighted with a pair of blue eyes. "Dear Marian," said Frank, "dear Maid Marian"; so sat lost in reverie, nor moved till the sound of old Hugh's voice came ringing from the hall.

Hastily he put away the portrait, rose, and met Hugh at the door.

"The top o' the morning to you, uncle."

"Same to you, lad." Hugh came in, crossed, and sat down. "Same to you. So you've got from the blankets at last. Why, you look better already. What is it? You look fresher, healthier. Ay, ye do."

Frank laughed. It was only the result of a good sleep, a good breakfast, he feared.

"Ah, maybe so. Ye slept well? That's right. And ye had a good breakfast, ye say?" Hugh glanced round at the table. "Why, heavenly hour, you've eaten nothin'. Ah, ye needn't talk; I know what there was before you began. An' now. . . . Here, Sally, Sally," roared the old man; then as Sally came running in, rose and pointed scornfully at the table. "Look what's happened to your breakfast, Sally. One egg gone, one bit o' bacon, a piece of toast, a slice of bread, an'—Yes, I declare to heaven," said Hugh, raising the teapot, "it's nearly full." Sally threw up her hands. "Aw, Mr. Frank, Mr. Frank, dear," wailed she, "what ails ye at all, at all?" Frank, not daring to smile, stood shifting his weight

from one leg to the other. Hugh looked at the table for a moment; then wheeled round.

"Why, what kind of mortal are ye?" he asked. "Or what kind can your inside be? Is it spoon-meat they give ye in London, or what? Here; let me feel ye." He gripped Frank's biceps. "Lord, Lord!" said he, "like butter they are." He ran his hand along Frank's legs. "Lord, Lord!" he said, "the spindles they are. Come, get on your boots, Frank Barry, an' come out till I make a man o' ye. Come out, I say; for, by the king, if ye don't eat your dinner like a man I'll stuff ye like a Christmas turkey. Come on." And, whether he liked it or no, out Frank went.

It was a bright morning, keen with the savor of an east wind, yet holding, nevertheless, a promise of spring. The air was clear, full, bracing. Far off the mountains stood out long and blue against the sky; the hills lay huddled about the valleys; nearer still were the familiar fields, rough and barren, small and irregular, set with whins, rushes, hedges, dotted with white homesteads. On the grass the frost still glistened. The peaceful sounds of country life—dogs yelping, cattle lowing, children shouting, carts clanking along the roads—came clearly. In the distance Lough Erne gleamed away between its wooded shores; gleamed like silver in the morning sun.

"Ye don't have views like that through London chimney-pots," said Hugh, stretching an arm across the paddock gate.

"Nor through many other chimney-pots," answered Frank; then turned and followed his uncle across the yard.

Beyond the yard were the outhouses; the byre full of store cattle, the dairy sweet and cool, the stables with their rattle of chains and stamping of hoofs, the barn above the byre with its heaps of chaff, piles of straw, sacks of grain; through all these went Hugh, thumbs caught in his waistcoat pockets, hat back on his crown, his tongue busy with explanation and comment. So much the cattle were worth, so much that roan horse cost, such and such was the pedigree of that short-horn bull; thus and so on. Behind the offices was an enclosed



yard lined with sheds, tool-houses, piggeries; beyond this lay the haggard, beyond that again the orchard; through all these, Hugh, still talking, led Frank. Badly that yard wanted paving. Why did not Barney, dang the fellow, hurry and feed those pigs? Let Frank take a sniff of that old hay. Ah, 'twas prime, sir, prime. And now let Frank turn up his trousers and come for a tramp.

So Frank started for his tramp; and, for a while, his going was not pleasant. His boots were thin, his clothes light; soon his feet were soaking, his trousers muddy to the knee. There was never a path, never a field that was not saturated. Up and down, here and there, through gaps and rushes, over hedges and ditches; oh, 'twas a weary tramp. And all this weary talk about things agricultural! What cared he whether such a field had been in turnips two years ago, or whether, with God's help, such a field would next year be plowed for oats? How the deuce could he care, with his boots, his boots. . . . Oh, it was infernal!

For all that, Hugh was relentless. From field to field he went, from hill to hill; through rushes and clay and mud tramped Hugh, splattering, grunting, puffing. At last, when about half the two hundred acres of Ryfield had been traversed, he halted on the crest of a hill, and there seated himself on a stump.

"That's a good view," said he, and looked toward the lake.

"Yes," answered Frank, with his eyes on his boots. "I suppose it is."

"Suppose? It's a danged good view, that's what it is. D'ye see Lismahee away yonder? There's Louth Castle beyond in the trees. That's Bunn town you'll be seein' across the hills. They call that country Gorteen over there—Orange Gorteen. That's Inishrath Island below there between the ferries."

Frank looked up quickly.

"Indeed?" said he. "Where Nan—where Butler the ferryman lives?"

Hugh found Frank's eyes.

"An' what do you know about Nan Butler, may I ask?"

Again Frank looked at his boots.

"Oh—very little. She ferried me over yesterday. That's all."

"Ay. An' was the father with her?"

"No."

"Ay. Well, all the better. He's a wind-bag, a good-for-nothing, a cumberer of the earth. Bah! The name of him riles me. I want to talk no more about him," snapped Hugh; "about him or his. Them's a nice pair of boots o' yours," he went on. "'Twas in London they were made, I'm thinkin'."

"They were never made for such—such confounded usage as this," cried Frank. "They're ruined, simply ruined."

"They look it," answered Hugh. "An' your feet's wet?"

"Soaked."

"All the more reason we'd be movin'. Look here, my lad," said Hugh, rising and laying a hand on Frank's shoulder. "I've been watchin' ye. I'm sorry your feet are wet, but the Lord made ye for a man. Try not to disappoint him. Ye hear me?"

"Yes," said Frank shamefacedly. "Yes, I hear"; and thereafter Frank strove his man's best.

True, his best was not brilliant; still, he did strive, and as reward soon found enjoyment in his ramble and in his uncle's society. After all, he told himself, matters might have been worse. The scenery was good, the air excellent, the sun and wind exhilarating; there was pleasure to be had even in boldly essaying noisome places, in jumping ditches and venturing awesome drains; and, for the rest, was not old Hugh's talk delightful and himself a man worthy of study and admiration?

Really, mused Frank, this uncle of his was a fine old fellow. See him there, striding along as sturdily as might a man of fifty, head erect, eye bright and quick as a child's, his face glowing with health and the bounty of the open air. How well he talked, too, so clearly and racily; and how genuine was his pride in those fields of his, those flocks and herds. He looked a very king taking stock of his dominions. His eye reveled in all it saw; he talked of his land as another might of his mistress; his heart was given to the fields.

Yes, old Hugh was well worth the knowing, Frank thought. He was getting to understand him, to love him, even. True, he was not Frank's kind, was his exact opposite indeed; was somewhat uncouth, narrow, a man of affairs, of facts, a child of the soil; one who would quote you the Bible this breath and curse you the next, and hit you as quickly as he would do either; a man also who cared not for books, and called authors fools. Yes; that was Uncle Hugh. And Frank? Well, he was just the opposite of all that; was a child of the pen, a spinner of fancies, a bookish man, a man of mind. Yes. Still, were these inestimable qualities, call them superiorities just for the sake of contrast—were these to blind him, Frank Barry, to his uncle's virtues? No, no; that were to be crass indeed. On the contrary, did they not help him to a closer sight of these virtues; enable him pleasurably to listen (as he then was listening) to Hugh's talk, to look at things almost with his eyes? Ah, yes. Such were the advantages of width, culture; such the light which beat on Hugh and showed him so splendid an old fellow—a plain, honest, sturdy man; a real man; one with the heart and mind of a child; one whose yea was yea, and nay, nay, whom you could trust eternally. And this pride he had in his work, in his acres, this love for the inanimate fields, this delight in his freedom, health, vigor, this joy in the sun, and in the pure air of heaven—how these things ennobled the bounds of his narrowness and set him apart, set him far above the great throng of the workers of the earth! Here was your ideal worker; your ideal man, some might think. Often had Frank read of such, seen such lauded in speeches and leading articles as saviors of the country and pillars of the state; and there, there walking by his side, was one of these, this same old Hugh Barry.

Well, well, thought Frank, and glanced at his uncle, just to think where his thoughts and his fancies had landed him. He smiled, shrugged his shoulders, muttered a word to himself. Round came Hugh's face.

"Eh?" said he. "What's that? What are ye grinnin' at, Frank?"

"Oh, merely smiling, uncle, at a thought I had."

"Ay. A thought, indeed! That's a novelty with ye. An' what's your thought?"

"Just this: the honor I am at in walking with a pillar of the state."

Hugh snorted.

"Pillar of the state!" shouted he. "Pillar of the state be hanged! That's another o' your danged newspaper fooleries, another o' your sprats to catch whales. Here, stop your blather; an' come till I show ye where I grew those turnips I was tellin' ye about. Come away."

So Frank, the blood now quick in his veins and his manhood assertive, strode on by his uncle's side, over the hills along the valleys; came at last to the stretch of reclaimed bog-land which lies in the hollow right below Ryfield House. And at sight of that Hugh's face beamed pridefully and his tongue waxed eloquent. There was the work of his life; the boast of his heart; the talk of the countryside. Handfuls of money he had scattered upon that. Ah, the drudging he had been at out there; the years he had spent. And now look at it; the best piece of land in all Ireland, and it taken every inch from the barren bog. He could grow more there than in the rest of Ryfield—turnips as big as creels, potatoes as large as turf, corn as tall as pitchforks. Ay, ay. He thanked God he had done that; it would do more for his memory than a marble tombstone. And at that Frank laughed.

"Why surely, uncle," said he, "it wasn't for the sake of your memory that you drudged?"

"Naw; it wasn't. But every honest man strives to leave the world a little better than he found it, an' there's my share. May yours be no worse, Frank Barry," said Hugh, and strode again for the hills.

In a while they came to a field in which two laborers were digging. They were only simple souls, ragged and forlorn, but their welcome of Frank was something to make glad the heart of any man. Both remembered his father, his uncles, himself as a boy. They would have known him anywhere,

they said; and sure but it's glad they were to see him, and it's welcome back he was. One of them was the Ryfield herd, a man of about sixty; and he once getting grip of Frank's hand could scarce let go. It was almost touching, his genuine pleasure; it was a lesson in manners to see how tactfully he asked after Frank's welfare, nor showed his real concern that a Barry should turn out so poorly, such a crooked bundle of skin and bones, with, aw, such a woful face. And was Mr. Frank staying long? Aw, only for a month or so; sure that was no time at all. But, sure, maybe he couldn't spare longer, so busy he must be over in big London. Anyway, might the sun shine on him all the days he was in Ryfield; "an' sure I hope, sir," said James, turning to Hugh, "ye'll be tellin' Sally to feed him o' the best."

"Oh, trust Sally for that James," said Hugh with a laugh; "trust Sally for that."

"Sure, I know it," answered James; "sure, I know it well. Well, good-by, Mr. Frank; good-by, sir, an' God bless ye. An' we'll, mebbe, be seein' more of ye?"

"Indeed you will, James," said Frank, turning away. "Indeed, you will. And God bless you."

The two walked a little way; then said Frank:

"It was worth coming to Ireland," said he, "if only for that welcome."

"It was," said Hugh. "It was. An' ye took it well."

"Took it well, uncle? Of course I did."

"Ay. Well, some people wouldn't; an Englishman for one. He'd think it was impudence an' blarney, an' a thing to be taken with a curl of the lip. Ah, a big mistake, a big mistake. But you'll do Frank, you'll do. I was watchin' ye, an' you've got the way wi' ye. Yes. But mind this, me son: always thank God for an Irish welcome, but pray God ye may never play it false. That's it, Frank; that's it."

#### CHAPTER IV.

THE remainder of that day slipped slowly and unimportantly away. Frank ate a good dinner; bent, all the afternoon,

over the many pages writ in his crabbed mode of penmanship and his fluent habit of style of a letter inscribed to his dearest Maid Marian; did justice at tea to Sally's boxty pancakes, and thereafter till bedtime sat flushed and repentant before the parlor fire.

So that day passed; and the second was like unto it. The third was wet and forlorn. The fourth came and found Frank somewhat tired of the life at Ryfield. Over and over he had tramped the fields, and he was weary of them. Day after day he had heard the same discourse from his uncle, the same voluble reminiscences from Sally, the same good-hearted blarney from James the herd; day after day he had done, heard, seen the same things, and he was tired, somehow, of them all. The first fine delight of change and novelty was gone; he needed something fresh, something less eternally same. Farm life was very healthful, but so monotonous. It seemed to be all humdrum in Ryfield; rising, eating, drudging, going to bed; a continual running in a circle from the monotony of one duty to the dreariness of another. Always something was in hand; never, so it seemed, was anything being effected. Hunger and work, eating and rest; these made life at Ryfield, its pleasures and duties. Mother earth was queen in those parts; and her rule was stern, and her subjects slaves. And since the rain, cried Frank within himself, the fields were sloughs and the yard a mudhole; there was not a book in the house, not a picture worth the seeing; he could not write, think; oh, assuredly he must do or see some new thing. But how or where? Go with his note-book on a tramp of exploration? No; inclination leaped not that way. Go with Hugh in the tax-cart to Bunn; see fresh hills, faces, hear fresh shouts of welcome from hillside throats? No; little of change in that. Go, then, for a long walk; cross the ferry, say, tramp to Lismahee? The ferry? The Butlers and Inishrath Island? Yes.

The decision was pleasing. Immediately after dinner Frank buttoned up his coat, lit his pipe, with his hands in his pockets

stepped daintily down the lane and out upon the broad road. The day was gray and chilly; but as Frank strode his spirits ran high. Like a boy playing truant he felt.

He reached Garvagh ferry; there found nor man nor boat. Up and down the broad lake stretched between its wooded shores, cheerless and desolate. The sky hung low. The wind cried dismally among the willows, mourned in the oaks, piped sorrow on the hazel twigs.

Here and there Frank looked, searching for some one or something; and his search was barren. What to do? There was no flagstaff on that side. How then call the ferryman? Shout? It seemed absurd; but Garvagh was in Ireland. See Frank, then, roaring out into the teeth of the wind. Twice, thrice, he shouted; and neither effort set a soul astir on the island. Well, Frank was confounded. Oh, this Ireland, this eternal home of simplicity and hap-hazard! Mouthing, however, might effect nothing; let him rather try fortune westward along the shore.

It was a rough stretch of beach, thick with stones, stumps, stunted willows; not half a furlong of it had Frank covered when he chanced upon a cot lying among the rushes. A battered hulk she was, half full of water, oarless; moreover, was chained and locked to a tree. But does not youth conquer all things? And before twenty minutes were gone, had not Frank broken a link between two stones, baled out with a battered meat tin, and clumsily wielding a thwart as paddle, set off desperately across the depths?

Half an hour of vigorous paddling—and of some adventure, be it said—and behold Frank at last in Inishrath, the cot fastened to the pier and himself striding up a lane from the shore. For a little way there were trees on either hand; soon the lane was running up between tall hedges through the open fields. The track was muddy, the hedges untrimmed, the ditches broken; here a gate dragged on its pivot, there a gap was stopped with branches of white thorn; right and left the fields lay barren, covered with whins, rushes, stones; a

desolate aspect, Frank thought, a sorry sight.

Some distance from the shore, the lane suddenly lost one of its hedges and became a mere grass track; and just there, in the remaining ditch, was a wooden gate, painted green, and beyond it a bit of garden and a thatched cottage. Frank leaned across the gate and spied about him. The garden was orderly, with trim hedges, a couple of beehives, some spring green-stuff, and a few early flowers. In the cottage walls were set a green door and four diamond-paned windows, two above and two below; house leek grew on the thatch, and on the sills were green flower-boxes. Was this the home of the Butlers? Frank asked himself, with an eye on the orderliness of cottage and garden. Was it the home of him who owned those desolate fields? he asked again, and looked across his shoulder. Just a minute he stood puzzling; then opened the gate, went up the garden, and knocked at the green door.

For a while he stood waiting on the step; then a foot sounded inside, a bolt rattled back, the door opened slightly, and a woman's head and shoulders came into view. Frank raised his hat.

"Excuse me," he said, "but does Mr. Butler live here?"

"He does," came back. The door opened a little wider.

"Ah. Well, my name's Barry—Mr. Frank Barry."

Back swung the door and Mrs. Sarah Butler stood revealed; a lean woman, sallow and sharp of face, black hair screwed into a wisp, arms bare, skirt bunched up beneath her apron, and a pair of heavy and muddy boots showing below her tattered petticoat.

"Aw," said she, wiping her lips with a corner of her apron; "aw, it's Mister Frank. An' me thought at first ye were the parson." She laid a flabby hand in Frank's. "I hope I see ye well, Mr. Frank," said she with a smirk.

"Thank you, I'm very well," answered Frank. "But are you Mrs. Butler?"

"Aw, yis, Mr. Frank; aw, yis. But ye'll be comin' in, sir?" She turned, just as

Frank was crossing the threshold. "John," seemed altogether too worthy a setting for the big ring of the desolate fields.

"I'm here." Like a bull's was the voice that answered. "What's up?" John lifted a chair, dabbed it down before the window; took Frank by the

"Aw, it's not his reverence at all; sure it's Mr. Frank himself from London."

There came a sound as of a chair up-setting; the voice began rolling again, a door opened at the end of the hall, and out came him called John.

"What, what?" said he. "Is it Mr. Frank, ye say?" He looked hard at Frank; then, with his arm outstretched, came hurrying up. "Why, so it is," he roared, "so it is. Be the Lord, but I'm glad to see ye, Frank Barry! God bless me soul, but it's changed ye are. Why, how the divil are ye? Great king, to think it's your own self! Och, och, twenty long years. Why, the spit o' your father ye are. Why, I'd know your skin on a bush. Come in, man, come in. Frank, me son, come up here till I get a good look at ye."

Hat in hand, Frank went along the hall and up into a little room. There was one small window. The floor was of clay; the ceiling low, and covered, like the walls, with a cheap pink and white paper. Strips of carpet lay near the door and on either side of a round table. On the walls hung photographs, almanacs, samplers, an old-fashioned engraving or two. In a corner stood a glass-fronted press holding a motley array of china and glass. A sofa stood against the wall, swathed, like the painted chairs, in bright woolen antimacassars. On the table were a few books; the Bible, the "Pilgrim's Progress," and Pope among them; in the middle stood an ornament in colored wax beneath a glass shade. On the mantelpiece were more photographs, an ancient clock, two brass candlesticks, and a few china vases filled with dried grasses. A poor little room it was; yet to Frank Barry's quick eye the sight of it was not displeasing. It was tidy, clean, not cheerless. The trace of a deft hand was over it. Quite too good, it seemed, for the requirements of John Butler and his slattern of a wife; too dainty and refined, Frank might say, just as the trim garden outside had

shoulder.

"Sit down, me son," he said; "sit ye down; Sarah, sit ye down. Heavenly hour, Frank, but I'm glad to see ye back. Sure Nan was tellin' us about ye. Haw, haw," he laughed and smacked his knee; "to think o' that fall ye had in the cot, an' her not to know ye till she nearly had ye ferried. Haw, haw! . . . And you're sure you're well? Good, sir, good; though faith you're as thin in the face as a goat fed on stubble. Divil cares if you're well. Man alive, but I'm glad to see ye. Get out the glasses, Sarah, an' the bottle; get them out till we—Now, whisht wi' ye, Frank Barry. Is it your father's son refuse a taste—him that was the best fellow an' the best companion in all Fermanagh? Arrah, whisht wi' ye."

It was a saying in Garvagh that John Butler could do nothing better than any man, and talk more than any five—including their wives. Indeed his capacity for speech was astonishing. His talk poured forth even as water pours from a spout. Neither chance of a word nor time for a thought did he give you; like a spring flood the words came down and swamped you. He was a big man, with a square, ruddy face; the mouth large and mobile, the chin weak and flabby. His eyes were bright and kindly, his nose large, his head crowned with a shock of brown hair.

"Aw, your father was a roarer," John went on, half-filling a tumbler with whisky; "the merriest blade God ever made. Aw, but the girls were mad for him. Ay, ay. Take that in your fist, Frank. Come; none o' your capers. D'ye hear me, I say? That's right. Well." John raised his hand. "Here's luck, Mr. Frank, an' may heaven be your home." He drank and handed his glass to Sarah. "Drink, Sarah," said he.

Mrs. Butler smirked at Frank, bobbed her head.

"Long life to ye, Mr. Barry," said she; then sipped, grimaced, and passed the tumbler back to John.



Frank looked from one to another.

"I look toward you," said he, "and drink your very good health." Slowly he raised his glass, sipped, spluttered; the stuff was sheer poison.

John gave a snort of disgust.

"Pah!" said he; "you're no Barry—no Barry at all. Why, man, your father would ha' finished what's there in once, an' shouted for more. You're not like him there, me son. But tell me, now, how d'ye take after him in regard to the women? Eh, ye dog ye?" And just there the door opened and in came Nan.

She was dressed simply in a gray dress, a bit of red ribbon showing at her throat, and her black hair falling loosely about her brow. Very charming she looked, thought Frank as he rose to greet her, very charming indeed.

"How do you do, Nan?" said he. "You see I've kept my promise."

She gave Frank her hand.

"You're welcome, Mr. Barry; very welcome," said she; then turned and took a chair beside her mother.

Frank had been sitting with his face to the window, having John on his right and Sarah on his left; now he shifted his seat and turned from John.

"Your father has been twitting me, Nan," said he, "upon my mishap in the cot the other day. You told tales, then?"

"Aw, yes," answered Nan with a smile, "sure ye weren't hurt."

"And that is why you told?"

"Aw, no; sure not at all."

"You wouldn't have told, then, supposing I had been hurt?"

"Eh? Why, of course. To be sure. Only not in the same way."

Frank laughed.

"I see," he said. "You got home safely, I hope?"

"Aw, yes," answered Nan; "aw, yes."

Somehow, Frank's stream of talk—usually so fluent when very small—would not run. Nan seemed shy, a little demure. Sarah, he felt, was watching him narrowly. John, he knew, was leaning forward, elbows on knees, hands clasped, his face big with

the joviality bred of whisky. Quickly he turned.

"You remember my father well, Mr. Butler?"

John drained his glass, sat back in his chair.

"Knew your father? I knew him better than I know myself. I knew him when he was a babby; I knew him when he was that high—an' that—an' that. Sure, we went to school together. Sure, many's the fight we had. Sure, I mind me—"

John was fairly started; and for the next twenty minutes he sat there rolling out his reminiscences, the while Frank, giving him but half an ear, sat looking now at the geranium pots on the window shelf, now at Nan, now at Sarah, now at John, but most of all at Nan.

Nan was a charming girl, Frank thought; but how strange that she should be the daughter of such parents, particularly of such a mother. John, that big, good-natured John, might pass; but the slattern of a mother! No, Nan was not in the least like her mother; for that let the gods be thanked. Was she like John, then? Yes, somewhat; but, taken all in all, she was just herself, just plain Nan. He liked the girl. A very different Nan she looked from the Nan of the old jacket and peaked cap who had ferried him but a few days ago. How was it? Could it be that, knowing he had come, she had adorned herself? Ah! And now he knew another thing. It was she who had arranged that little parlor, who had given to its homeliness that indescribable air of femininity, of taste; it was Nan's room, not Sarah's or John's; just as the garden outside doubtless was hers also. He glanced at her. With downcast eyes, she sat by her mother twisting a ring round the third finger of her left hand. So! Frank turned quickly away; and the next minute John rose.

"Ay," said John, "that's just how it was. That's the very way the girl came to capture him; an' that's the very way he left these parts and went off on his travels to Dublin. But sure ye know; an' now come away out, Frank, till I show ye the fields.

Get the tay, Sarah; an' call us when it's ready."

Frank followed John through the garden, out into the lane, and thence uphill till they came to a mound toward which from all sides the island sloped up from the water. Standing there, Frank had full sight of all Inishrath, and of the lake stretching away from its stony shores. In shape it was nearly circular. Round its edge, here and there, were trees. Hedges ran down and across it, and from ditch to ditch lay the bare ribs of the little fields. The soil showed cold and hungry through its covering of stones and coarse grass. Here two goats were hobbling along, there a donkey stood forlorn among the whins, in and out of the rush clumps ran scraggs of fowls. Half way down stood the Butlers' home—tumble-down offices behind, garden in front, the pier and cots below. The wind came shrill and keen; the sky hung low; bleak and barren, Inishrath lay scowling in the waste of gray waters.

John stretched an arm and swept it around.

"There," said he; "there's me estate."

Frank looked right and left, here and there. Yes, thought he; and an estate to be proud of.

"The whole island, then, belongs to you, John?"

"Such as it is, I own it all—for a consideration in the shape of rent," added John with a grin.

Frank nodded.

"And yours is the only house upon it, I see?"

"That's all. One house an' one estate, an' all me own."

Again Frank nodded.

"Many a king owns no more."

"Ay, faith," answered John with a laugh.

"An' a good many of them, stretched their full six feet, own a trifle less. Ay, indeed. Och, an' it's the mighty grand king meself is, wi' me two-story castle down there, an' one ass for a subject, an' me fleet lyin' there below. Sure, like the lad in the song,

"From the center all round to the say,  
I am lord of the fowl and the brute."

"Yes," said Frank with a laugh. "So you are. And you never feel lonely?"

"Aw, no," answered John; "aw, no. People come over kaleyin' o' nights; an' sure, always we're seein' people at the ferryin'. Ay, we are. An' aren't there four of us, anyway, always round the hearth to keep each other company; an' isn't Ted Ross wi' us that constant ye might call him one of ourselves? Aw, no; loneliness niver troubles us; divil a bit does it."

Frank looked at John.

"You said four, I think. What four, pray?"

"What's that?" came back. "What four, ye ask? Isn't there Sarah, sure that's one. An' isn't there Nan, sure that's two. An' isn't there meself, sure that's three. An' isn't there the ould father, God help him; sure I'd be thinkin' that's nearly four."

"Ah, I see. And who may Ted Ross be?" Frank asked.

"Aw, just a lump of a chap from over the lake that's sweet on Nan."

"Ah." Frank looked away. "Indeed! You'll miss Nan," he went on, in a while, "when Mr. Ross takes her from you?"

John laughed.

"Aw, we will, we will," he said, and fell to rubbing his chin. "But time enough sure to miss her when she goes. It might be long enough before that; sure it might. One niver knows. Maybe she'd niver go. Who knows? Ted's in no hurry; an' Nan's in no hurry; an' we're not. So there ye are, faith; there ye are."

Somehow, Frank's face brightened at the words. Gladly he turned again to John; presently fashioned a remark which set John's tongue wagging in a long account of himself and of his many adventures in the welter of things. His father and grandfather had held Inishrath before him. All his life had John lived there. He liked the place and was well content; though sometimes he had a notion how poor a thing it was for mortal man to live and die and never get a squint at the wonders of the big world. But, aw, sirs, landlords were the tyrants. Twenty pounds a year he paid in rent; and that for land that couldn't

feed goats. Long ago he had quit trying to cultivate it. Now he just let it go to the devil, and trusted to God and the ferry-money for the rent and the bit to eat. Let Frank look at the land; let him drive his heel into the clay.

"And yet," cried John, wheeling round and spreading his arms, "twice has the landlord served me with a notice because I got into arrears. Twice, I say. What d'ye think of that, Frank Barry?"

Again Frank looked round the fields. Suppose old Hugh lord of that island? thought he. Would its fences then lie broken, its ribs stretch nakedly from ditch to ditch; would only two goats, an ass, and a tribe of fowls be abroad upon it; would old Hugh be standing there with his hands in his pockets, giving voluble proof of his own incompetence?

"I think, John," said he turning, "that in some ways you're a very lucky man, and in some very unlucky." And, quick on his words, Nan's voice came shrilling up from the garden calling them to tea.

The two left the wind-swept rath and went down through the fields; and at the garden gate Frank halted. He would be for home now, he thought. It was getting late; his uncle expected him. John took him by the arm, pulled him across the garden, and shot him through the doorway.

"Uncle be hanged!" shouted he. "In ye go, Frank Barry. It's not yourself 'll be the first man to leave Inishrath wi' an empty belly. In ye go; straight into the parlor. There, now you're safe, me son," quoth John, and closed the door. "Tryin' to give us the slip, indeed!" John sprawled into a chair and put his hat beneath it. "Wantin' to run off to your uncle, indeed! Yes, that's what he was after, Nan."

Nan put down the teapot.

"Aw, sure ye wouldn't treat us like that, Mr. Frank," said she. "Sure ye wouldn't."

"I'm truly sorry, Nan," answered Frank. "I'll never be guilty again. John, you'll forgive me—and you, Mrs. Butler?" he added, with a look across the table at his hostess, sitting there in her Sunday gown, smirking and playing gentility.

"Aw, to be sure, Mr. Barry," answered Sarah. "To be sure."

"Aw, blood an' ouns, of course," roared John; "of course. Sure, I knew ye meant nothin'. An' now what'll ye have, Frank, me son? There's hot sody cake, an' white bread, an' pritta bread, an'—Aw, hang it, Frank, don't let us be doin' the polite. Just pull up an' help yourself."

So Frank pulled up and helped himself; and the cups rattled on the saucers, and the spoons clinked merrily, and John talked and talked, and Sarah minced and watched, and Nan glanced at Frank, and Frank admired Nan; and, suddenly, across the waters came a cry from the Lismahee side, a long, shrill "Aho-y-y."

"The boys from the market," said John, diving for his hat. "Faith, it's early they'll be. Come, Nan, me girl; come away, Sarah. Ye'll forgive us runnin' off, Frank, me son? But the poor must earn their bread be the sweat o' their brow. Ay, ay."

So the feast broke up. All hurried down to the pier; there manned the big ferry cot and, Nan and Frank at one oar, Sarah at the other, John standing by the steering sweep, set her course for the Lismahee side. The night began to fall; the waters lapped against the cot and splashed musically at dip of the oars; but, all the way from Inishrath to the Lismahee side and thence (the cot now full of noisy marketers, some tipsy, some sober, many striking the golden mean) to Garvagh, the only music that sounded for Frank Barry was the soft witchery of Nan's voice, and the only night that fell flashed from Nan's dark eyes; nor did he once call to mind the eyes and voice of his dear Maid Marian. Ah, Frank Barry!

Then the cot swung to the pier; out poured the marketers with shout and clamor. Soon Frank was standing in shade of the willows, and Nan was gone, and John's voice was ringing out across the dark waters: "Good-night, Mr. Frank. Safe home; an' come again soon."

#### CHAPTER V.

Two nights went; it was only the afternoon of Monday, yet once again was Frank

Barry feeling somewhat restive. He felt inclined to mope, to grumble. The days were long, the nights weary; life, he felt, ran tamely within the precincts of Ryfield. It seemed quite a week, for instance, since Saturday and his visit to Inishrath; it seemed eighteen hours rather than eight since the coming of Marian's letter by that morning's post.

How was it? Was his environment to be blamed; that, or himself? His environment surely. Think of the last two days. Think of Sunday; its late breakfast, its weary drive through the fields and bogs to the dreary church with its box-pews, harmonium, drawling choir, prosy sermon. Think of the long drive back to a cold dinner, a puritanical somnolence, a profitless smoke; of that farmhouse parlor at night, stuffy, crowded with rustics, Moody and Sankey with accompaniments by Miss Clodhopper on a battered piano, long prayers, thunderings, sighs; think of the walk home through the rain, the supper of porridge and milk, the long chapter and longer exposition, the early bed; think of it all! And what of better, so far, had that day brought? None. All the morning he had walked with Hugh about the fields; all the afternoon had been writing to Marian; now his uncle had gone to Bunn, Sally was busy, he had nothing to do. "Oh, confound the place!" cried Frank. "What the dickens. . . ." Words were useless. He had tea; put on hat and coat, went out.

He struck the broad road; without hesitation turned his face from the ferry. No more Inishrath and tempting black eyes for him yet a while. Straight on he walked, past bogs, hills, cottages, cabins. Away in front stood the long mountain; on either hand stretched the everlasting hedges; above was a low gray sky. He met not a soul, heard scarcely a sound; within twenty minutes was back again at Ryfield gate, lighting a fresh pipe and taking his mental bearings. Should he spend the evening chatting with Sally, reading his Shakespeare, making notes for this would-be novel? Or should he retrace his steps and walk till he met old Hugh? Or should he, should he—?

Frank shrugged his shoulders; slowly began walking toward the lake. The trees would be company, he reflected; the wind, the lap of the waves. He came to the shore. Desolate it was, and somber as ever. Still, he had counted on that; for him gloom held a certain poetic charm. Gathering his coat about him he sat down on the edge of the pier; idly began juggling with phrase and fancy. How weirdly silent the world was. How far away, even, sounded the lap of the waves there at his feet. What a melancholy, so profound, so mysterious, lay at the heart of nature in these heralding days of sweet springtime; ah, what joyousness, awakening was in store! How low and dismal the sky hung; how passive were the treacherous waters out there; how stealthily drear night came creeping. There! He liked to see that light spring out so suddenly. It was—yes, it was in Inishrath, in the Butlers' cottage. Perhaps Nan had kindled it. Hark! The steady beat of oars came sounding along the shore. Who could it be? Frank mounted the pier, walked to the water's edge, peered through the twilight. A cot came in sight; came nearer, nearer. Bah! The rower was a man! He turned away, swore; turned again.

"Hello, there," came across the water.

"Hello," answered Frank.

"Are ye for over?"

"No. . . . Stay. For where bound?"

"Inishrath."

"So?" Frank considered. Should he? Should he not? He raised his head. "Well, I'm for there too," he shouted, "if you don't mind taking me."

"An' why not?" came back; within a minute Frank was in the cot and once more adventuring upon the deeps. Few words passed all the way over. It had fallen dark. The oars clanked loudly. Frank sat pondering. The stranger was smoking. They landed; pulled the cot high and dry upon the shore; together set off up the lane.

"You're strange these parts?" said the man presently.

"I am," answered Frank; "very strange."

"My name's Ross, if ye'd like to know,"

said the man, just as they came to the garden hedge. "Ted Ross, they christened me."

Frank paused.

"Oh," said he; then, after a step or two, "I've heard your name before, I think."

"Ay, mebbe ye have," came back. "An' I'm thinkin' I saw yourself at preachin' last night. It's Mr. Barry, isn't it?"

"Yes."

"Ay. Well, there's your way," said Mr. Ross, with a nod at the garden gate. "I'm for the back door."

"And I'm with you," said Frank; so, passed through a gateway, crossed a yard, and at Ted's heels went straight into the Butlers' kitchen.

A large room it was, floored with cement and lighted by a tin lamp that hung in the chimney nook. The walls were smoke-stained, the ceiling sooty-black. From the joists hung clusters of onions, strings of smoked bream, bacon, bladders, dried herbs; a gun rested above the fireplace; on the walls were tins, nets, hay-twisters, harness; the dresser shone like the windows of a china shop; in the corners stood oars, poles, bundles of osiers, lengths of split wood.

John Butler, seated with his back to the chimney-jamb, was making a basket; Sarah his wife, arms bare and skirt bunched about her waist, was stirring green-stuff into a pot that bubbled over the fire; in the corner farthest from the door sat an old man in a high-backed chair.

"God save all here," said Ted Ross, making for a stool.

"Save ye kindly," answered John, looking up. "Bully, Ted—Eh? What!" John rose. "Why, it's Frank Barry; hang me, if it isn't. How did ye come? How the devil are ye, Frank? Man alive! Thunder an' turf! An' to come to the kitchen! Ted, ye devil, what in glory made ye bring Mr. Barry to the back dure?"

"His own feet brought him," answered Ted from his place by the hearth. "His own feet an' his own free will. Where's Nan?" he asked of Sarah, who, whilst John was questioning, deftly had been smoothing

her hair, ordering her skirt, wiping her face with a corner of her apron.

"Milkin'," answered Sarah; then turned to Frank. "Good-evenin', Mr. Barry," said she.

"Good-evening, Mrs. Butler. I hope I see you well, ma'am."

"Aw, yis," said Sarah; "aw, yis. But ye'll be comin' up to the room above, Mr. Barry. Sure this is no place for ye at all; sure it's all of a muck."

Frank dragged a chair toward the hearth.

"It's the place I like," said he. "With your permission, ma'am, I'll share your hearthstone for a while."

Mumbling her excuses, Sarah backed toward the dresser; but John gripped Frank's shoulder.

"Well said," said he; "well said, me son. Down ye sit, an' may the fire never shine on a worse man, say I. Sit ye down."

Frank threw off his coat, laid it on the table, sat down. On his right was the old man. On his left Ted Ross sat hunched on a stool. Sarah lifted the pot from the crook, carried and set it in the middle of the floor. A fine flavor of boiled kale and a sudden burst of steam went up to the rafters. John flung his basket below the table, turned to the fire, and dragged forward his stool.

"That's the ould man," said he, looking at Frank and waving his hand across the hearth. "Father," he roared, "I say, father. Here's Mr. Barry all the way from London come over to see us."

"Ay, ay," said old John, and gave Frank a moment's look at his wizened face, all yellow and puckered, set with weary, lack-luster eyes, crowned with a shock of snowy hair.

"A powerful age he is," whispered John to Frank; "an ojus age. He knows nothin' or nobody. He's just alive, God help him. Ye know Ted Ross?" he said aloud, with a jerk of his thumb.

"Yes," said Frank. "We made each other's acquaintance a while ago."

Ted grunted assent. John rubbed his hands together, spread them to the blaze; began to talk. Powerful late the spring



was in showing its nose; terrible hard it was on people to get never a chance to cut a turf; shocking hard it would be to get the next half year's rent together. Ay, ay. Sure the country was gone to the dogs. Sure the blaggards of landlords were ruining everything.

A step sounded in the yard, the latch rattled, and in came Nan. John ceased talking; Sarah, still occupied with the contents of the pot, coughed warningly; Ted sat stolidly on, pipe in mouth and his face to the fire. Frank rose.

"How d'you do, Nan?" he said. "Here I am again, you see."

Nan stood her milking porringer on the table; came forward and gave Frank her hand.

"You're kindly welcome, Mr. Barry," said she; then pulled a stool from beneath the table, set it between Ted and her father, and sat down. Ted took his pipe from his mouth.

"Bully, Nan," said he, and went on smoking.

"Well, Ted," answered Nan; then folded her hands and fixed her eyes on the fire.

John went on with his rigmarole. Frank leaned back in his chair, hooked his thumbs in the armholes of his waistcoat; with the tail of his eye fell to observing the methods of rustic lovers. Close together, almost elbow to elbow, they sat; yet of each other's presence seemed to take no heed. As wooden as a graven image, Ted sat sucking at his pipe. Like patience on a monument (the simile is Frank's own), Nan sat staring at the pothooks. Surely they must have quarreled, thought Frank. Surely this Ross was a very boor. He took good stock of him. A muscular young fellow he seemed; broad of shoulder, thick of neck, big of limb. His face was strong and well molded; his brown hair curled closely; his skin shone healthily. He was dressed in rough tweed, leggings, a peaked cap, and hob-nailed boots. No Adonis, thought Frank, decidedly no gentleman; still, and Frank glanced at Nan, no denying that physically they were a well-matched pair. But was the man wooden, thought Frank; and, even

as the thought came, Ted turned to his sweetheart.

"Ye weren't at preachin' last night?"

"No."

"An' why not?"

"I couldn't get away."

"H'm." With a grunt, Ted faced the fire again.

Frank raised his brows, smiled to himself; then stretched his legs toward the blaze and gave full ear to John's discourse.

Hitherto John had been talking disjointedly, half-heartedly; now, at sight of Frank giving him full heed, quickly he found himself, stretched forth a hand, and gave his tongue the reins.

The subject was Ireland (that everlasting subject) and the land question (that eternal question); vehemently John grappled with it. Aw, he knew a thing or two. Hadn't he eyes? What were politicians but a tribe of bagpipes? What was government but an old woman? What was Ireland but a home of lost causes? and John rolled the phrase, picked, doubtless, in some chance garden of editorial wisdom, about his tongue. What were its people but beggars, outcasts, hewers of wood, and drawers of water? Who would save Ireland, sir? shouted John, shooting forth a finger. Would England, sir? Would politicians, sir? Would God save Ireland? shouted John again. No, sir. But this is what would save her, and John's voice sank solemnly: Herself, sir, and her own true sons,

Frank sat listening to this, and to ever so much more, with enjoyment. It was all so novel, so whimsical. The scene, the moment, appealed to him. He liked this windbag of a John, liked to watch his moon-red face, his flaming eyes, darting hands; liked to hear his voice, so mellow and big and richly twanged with the lough-side brogue. And, besides this or that, whatever else John could not do, talk he could, and well.

John Butler was a man of small education, and his powers of brain and mind were not great; but he had read a few books, was a close student of the newspapers, and whatever he read he remembered. He

could quote you leading articles, Latin quotations and all, by the yard. He could recite whole pages from Bunyan, and long chapters from the Book of Proverbs or the Lamentations of Jeremiah. Constantly in his discourse was some chance line, garnered in heaven knows what corner of the mighty press, of the poets in evidence. He knew much of Pope by heart. If, by any hap, he went to church, he would reel you out the sermon all the way home, mangling its style and theology out of all knowing. And nowhere did he shine more gloriously than by his own fireside; there, with his old father blankly eyeing him across the hearth, with Sarah his wife facing him, hands spread on her knees, back as straight as any ramrod, eyes and face very signals of attention, with Ted and Nan sitting mum at his elbow, and some chance visitor in the post of honor before the fire. At these times John was great; but set a man such as Frank—a scholar, a Londoner, and a Barry—in sight of the pothooks, and John was mighty. He quoted, ranted, banged his knees, whacked his fists, tore this poor Irish question into quivering shreds: *whew-w*, you might have thought him some impassioned patriot lunging it from Tara's hill. And Frank, lounging in the chair of honor, now glancing at Nan, now at Sarah, sometimes flinging an encouraging word into the bonfire of John's eloquence, enjoyed it all vastly; vowed to himself that the thing was worth all the screeds of Hyde Park or the thunderings of Peckham Rye.

Presently John's tongue slackened somewhat; and in the lull that came Frank heard Nan laugh softly. He looked: there were our sweethearts with their heads together. Ted had twisted round on his stool, and, cheek on hand, was whispering; Nan, hands crossed on her lap and her eyes lowered, was listening. Her lips were slightly parted; there was a smile on her face; and at sight of her Frank frowned.

John's voice died out. Softly came the whispering.

"Sure, I waited and waited for ye outside, an' ye niver came. Och, I niver heard one word the preacher said for thinkin' of ye."

"Did ye, Ted? Did ye?"

"Och, ye might have managed to come. Sure, powerful lonely I was all the way home."

"Whisht, Ted, whisht"; and at the word, Ted, suddenly aware that silence had fallen upon the kitchen, rushed round on his stool, glared at Frank; then leaned toward the fire to light his pipe. Steadily Frank kept his eyes on Nan's face. How well that blush became her! What brows she had, what lips, what hair! Nan looked up, glanced at Frank, flushed crimson, and dropped her eyes again. Ah, what eyes, what eyes!

John smoked for a while; rested elbows on knees, clasped his hands, turned once more toward Frank.

"You'd be thinkin' a power, Frank, o' the poetry o' Pope, I'm thinkin'?" said he, cocking his head.

"No, John; as poetry I think but little of it."

"Ay? Just so. An' why, may I ask?"

Oh, Frank had many reasons for his opinion: was John very anxious to hear them? Yes; John was bursting with anxiety. Well, then. . . . and Frank went on to state his case. John listened attentively, contenting himself with an occasional snort of dissent or a wondering click of the tongue; listened attentively till Frank had finished, then smacked his lips and turned to the fire.

Aw, yes. Frank spoke like a newspaper, so he did. Pope didn't write poetry, said Frank, he was only a kind of pastry cook that baked cakes of prose and put a crust of rime on top. That was how Frank talked. Yes.

"But mebbe ye'd tell me," quoth John, glancing sideways at Frank, "what ye might call this prose?"

Frank defined prose.

"An' what might ye call poetry?" asked John, with a knowing look in his eye.

Frank gave a definition of poetry.

"Ay," said John. "I know. Well, there's a newspaper over there. D'ye call that poetry?"

Of course Frank did not.

"Well, in the top corner of that newspaper," John went on, "ye'll find somethin' "

headed, 'An Ode to Spring.' It goes like this"; and, whacking his hands together in pace with the rhythm, John quoted a verse or two of hillside doggerel. "D'ye call that prose, now?"

Of course Frank did not.

"Isn't poetry, then?" John's voice rang in a shout of victory. "Aw, whisht wi' ye," cried he, and turned from the sound of Frank's explanation. "If it isn't one, it must be t'other. An' can't any fool see it is? Doesn't it go *jog along, jog along, jog along*, wi' a lilt an' a swing to it? . . . Aw, shame on ye, Frank Barry. Man alive, if that's all ye learnt in London, you'd ha' been better employed fishin' for eels in the lake below. Tut, tut! Man, dear, a little learnin's a dangerous thing. I tell ye, sir, Pope's a rattler. Compare him wi' Tommy Moore, or Bobby Burns—"

"Or Willy Shakespeare," interposed Frank, with a scorn that was withering.

"Ay, or Willy Shakespeare," roared John. "Hang it, d'ye think that hurts Pope? No, sir. Tell me, did ye iver read 'The Essay on Man'? Ye did. An' ye didn't like it? Holy fly! Why, man, it's wonderful to the world. Listen to this (John quoted thunderingly); an' this (John spouted interminably); an' this. . . ."

Frank sheathed sword. As well try to breast Niagara, he felt, as bear up against the torrent of John's bluster; as well try to whistle down a thunder-storm as endeavor a word between the onset of his sentences. What a fool he had been. He had attempted to lighten the noisome wastes of rustic ignorance, had hoped to shine a little in John's eyes—and in Nan's—and now! Oh, confound Pope; and confound John Butler. Let the blockhead thunder away.

So John thundered away; passed presently from his eulogium of Pope to a disquisition on religion, and therein found such disport that Frank, in his discredited seat of honor, was forced to silent contemplation of one or another in that little semicircle gathered there before the fire.

In his armchair, old John was asleep, chin on breast and his lips dribbling. Low on a stool, Sarah sat rounding the heel of a gaudy

red and blue sock, her eyes fast on John's face, her lips moving in count with the loops that slipped from her fingers. On his left, now moved a little farther back from the hearth, the lovers sat whispering and bobbing heads. What were they saying? Frank wondered. What of pretty, or of amorous even, could a lout like Ted Ross find wherewith to witch Nan's little ear? Suppose he, Frank Barry, in Ted's place, would he be able to say aught that Ted had never said, bring from Nan smiles that Ted had never seen, see something shining in her eyes that Ted might never see? He wondered. Were they really in love? How came it that Nan was not wearing her ring? Ah, he liked Nan's face. And to think that her beauty, her worth, were all for the keeping, sooner or later, of a bumpkin! It was woful, thought Frank; then writhed on his chair and set it creaking; and at the sound Nan looked up, caught his eye, blushed, looked down, and nudged her sweetheart. With a clatter of his stool and a muttered oath round swung Ted; and Frank turning, found John's face, as round and rosy as a harvest-moon, turned full upon him. His eyes were twinkling; knowingly he winked at Frank, laughed and jerked his thumb toward the lovers.

"They make a purty pair?" said he. "Eh, Frank?"

Nan blushed deeper. Ted scowled. Frank grinned.

"I seen ye watchin' them," John went on. "Aw, ye rascal ye. Just in time I was to catch ye."

"Ach, keep quiet, can't ye?" growled Ted. "Why can't ye keep on wi' your blarney an' leave people alone?"

"Ay, and leave you to yours, Ted," answered John with a laugh. "Ay, ay. Love an' blarney, love that makes the world go round, an' blarney that keeps it goin'. Ay, ay. Well, fire away, me son, fire away. Ye won't be young always, me boy, an' once the sootherin' days are over, they're over for always. That's right, Frank, isn't it? That's your opinion?"

"Something like that, John."

"Aw, yis." John sighed. "Somethin'

like that. Sure it's not so long since meself an' Sarah over there were blarneyin' too. Aw, yis. Ye mind that time, Sarah?"

Sarah bent her head over her knitting; across her face stole the shadow of a blush.

"Aw, sure," she said. "Aw, sure."

"An' the devil's own blarneyer meself was, wasn't I, Sarah? Always talkin' as big as the moon an' as bright? Eh, Sally?"

"Aw, 'deed ay," sighed Sarah. "'Deed ay."

"Aw, but sure it never hurt us," John went on; "devil a hurt. All the better we were for our romancin', an' if we're wiser now, what are we the better? Sorrow a bit. Sure it's well to be young; ay, it is."

"Ay, it is," echoed Sarah.

"Come Christmas time," mused John, "I'll be fifty. Yis. Fifty years? It's a big age. Ay. An' all that time here I've been harbored, here in these four walls. There's been trouble sometimes, an' worry, an' heart-break. But, after all, things haven't been so bad, Sally? Eh, Sally?"

"Aw, no, John; aw, no."

"Fifty years? I wonder who'll be sittin' here come fifty more? Ay, ay. I wonder if it's God's will we'd be sittin' here this time next year. D'ye think, Frank Barry," said he, with unusual solemnity, "that if so be we were iver turned out of Inishrath—?"

"Nobody but yourself 'll iver turn ye out of Inishrath," said Ted Ross.

"Aw, whisht," pleaded Nan, laying her hand on Ted's arm; "whisht, Ted."

"I'm obliged to ye, Ted," said John, in

his suavest voice; "I'm obliged to ye. All the same I'm free, I'm thinkin', to ask Mr. Frank there, whether, supposin' it's God's will—"

"God's will!" snapped Ted; and again Nan pleaded him to whisht.

"—Supposin' it's God's will we'd iver be turned out of Inishrath, he thinks there's work waitin' for the likes of us over in big London?"

"There's too much waitin' for ye here," shouted Ted; and once more Nan whisped: "Och, whisht, Ted; whisht."

"Ye'll answer me, Mr. Frank?" asked John.

"Don't answer him, Mr. Barry," said Ted.

John swung round on his stool.

"Who's master in this house, Ted Ross?" shouted he. "You or me?"

"You are, John Butler," answered Ted, "an' a danged bad master ye make, let me tell ye. You an' your foolery! You an' your talk about bein' turned out of Inishrath! I tell ye again, nothin' 'll iver turn ye out but your own danged laziness. An' I tell ye again, for the hundredth time I tell it to ye, that it'd be better for ye to die in the work-house than be turned loose in London, or any other wilderness of a city. Isn't that true, Mr. Barry?" said Ted, turning to Frank. "Isn't true?"

Then Nan rose.

"I think, mother," said she, "it's about time we were gettin' supper. Come, an' I'll be helpin' ye.

*(To be continued.)*

## IRRITABILITY AND MOVEMENT.

BY WILHELM HAACKE.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

**I**F on a warm summer evening we sit in the arbor by the light of a lamp or in a room with the window open, we will see not merely beetles, but many other insects, especially gnats and moths, dancing about the lamp and flame, the shade and chimney, and sooner or later falling

with singed wings on the lamp and table. An irresistible impulse must drive the unfortunate creatures to the light. Not only are beetles led by such an impulse, but many thousands of birds are annually sacrificed to it, migratory birds, which, on their nightly journey to the winter feeding

ground or to the brooding place, have lost their way in the mist and have come too near a lighthouse. They strike against the brightly lighted panes, whereat many of them meet death. Trap-like lanterns render good service to horticulturists, and recently some one has managed to procure fish and other water animals by means of an electric light which shines forth from a trap-like apparatus lowered into the water.

The power which light exerts on many animals may be often fatal to them; the broad diffusion of the light movement, as we will call the characteristic which makes animals follow this power, has also led the ignorant to the supposition that it is generally advantageous, that it is one of the countless practical properties which make an organism an organism. And so it is; light instinct and light aversion cause organisms to seek beneficial influences and avoid the hurtful ones. They answer to those appulses which belong to the line of the so-called irritations, that is, to such incitements or irritations working on the organism from without as have a definite source, come from a definite direction, and irritate the organism, or a part of it, to motion or to growth in a definite direction. The tendency to turn toward an object and the impulse to flee from it play an extraordinarily great rôle in life and in the development of all animals and plants. Therefore it is proper to take a glance at the important phenomena of irritability and movement.

Among all the irritabilities and all the instincts, light irritability and light instinct play the most extensive rôle. The tendency to turn toward the light and the impulse to turn away from it are found among plants as well as animals. Heliotrope is a well-known and very fragrant decorative plant, but every flower-stand brings before the eyes the helio or phototropism of the plants, that is, their tendency to turn toward the sun or toward the light. One takes into consideration only the growing parts of the house plants, how they all reach out toward the light falling through the window, and their leaves know how to so turn and so

twist that their broad surfaces remain at right angles with the source of light. Then the beams of light are really more beneficial, and the green in the leaves, that is, the chlorophyl, needs the light in order to change the inorganic nutrition into the organic building material on which they live. The light instinct of the plant is also one of its especially useful characteristics. Positive phototropism, the tendency to turn toward the light, belongs only to growing plants and not even to all vegetable organisms. The matured stem no longer exhibits the tendency to turn toward the light, and some of the organs of many plants are distinguished in their growth not by turning toward the light, that is, positive phototropism, but by negative, that is, turning away from the light. The embryonic plant of the white mustard, cultivated in a transparent solution instead of in the soil and placed in a pot whose interior is lighted only by an opening broken in its side, turns its growing roots away from the light. Besides this negative and positive phototropism of growing plant stems, a transverse photo or heliotropism has been spoken of. This is ascribed to the leaves which place their broad surfaces at right angles or diagonal to the beams of light. However, this transverse phototropism is in reality only a variety of the positive, for it is a question not about something midway between the tendency to turn toward the light and a tendency to turn from it, but about the strongest light attraction, the highest degree of light irritability.

Microscopic plants and the multitude of spores of others likewise invisible to the naked eye, also the reproductive bodies of plants, can move about freely. The movement toward the light or away from it occurs among them, so one speaks not of phototropism, but of phototaxis. Phototaxis is the phototropism of freely moving, living forms; is their tendency to turn to the light and from it. It is found among the algæ and other lower plants, but especially is it noticed among the animals. Animals having the light instinct are divided



into friends of the light and enemies of the light. One of those inimical to light is the proteus, a well-known, salamander-like amphibian of Adelsberg Grotto and other dark holes of the vicinity, whose subterranean waters it inhabits. If it should venture into the open air it would be injured on account of its clear color, and so easily fall a sacrifice to amphibian eaters. But the proteus avoids the light; flees from it whenever and wherever it strikes him. One can easily observe this tendency in the captured proteus, which always seeks the darkest corner of its aquarium.

Experiments with the earthworm have proved that they also have a tendency to avoid the light, a fact well known especially to fishermen. They seek these little animals on the lawn, in pastures, and in gardens at night by lantern light, and they know that the earthworm must be taken unawares before it has time to escape into the soil. Earthworms which lie under stones vanish almost immediately into their holes if one turns up the stone and exposes the animal to daylight. The sun would dry it up, and in the bright light it is too easily perceptible to its enemies, the birds. Other dwellers of the earth are lovers of light, as the ants, among whom at least those who have reached maturity are light-seekers. The plant lice also seek the light. These, and especially the ants, are comparatively highly organized animals. We would expect to come across the tendency to turn toward the light among the lowest animals also if we take into consideration the same propensity in plants. So we find it in the green fresh-water polyp, which needs the light very much because it has made a kind of life partnership with a plant. Its green color does not really belong to it but to small living granules, one-celled microscopic algæ, which enjoy hospitality and nutrition in its mass of corpuscles and recompense its beneficence by the distribution of oxygen and the diffusion of air for breathing, so necessary to all animals. Then by means of the chlorophyll they separate the carbonic acid formed in the bodies of the polyp into carbon, which

they appropriate to themselves, and oxygen, which they give up to their host. Therefore its chlorophyll needs the influence of light. The polyp must also seek this in case it is cast in the dark.

A very low animal, so lowly organized that it is considered by many as a plant, is the flower of tan which makes up each yellow bunch of slime living and crawling in and on the tan-beds. These bunches, which are composed of so-called protoplasm and conceal countless round microscopic forms enclosed in it, can move by means of slime processes the so-called slime feet which they can stretch out and draw back again. During the night they crawl out of the interior of the tan-bed, only to turn back again at the break of day. The sun would dry them up and they therefore have a tendency to flee away from the light. This is the case only with the young. The older flowers of tan surround themselves with an integument and separate within it into propagating corpuscles—the so-called spores—for which they need the dry air of the day, wherefore they seek the light. Parts of animals growing stationary, whether they have a tendency to turn toward the light or from it, behave similar to the parts of the stationary plants which have the same tendencies. We see this in certain plant-like animals of the sea, the polypides, which by the ignorant are considered plants, and they possess root-like creepers by which they are fastened to their base. These root-like creepers are in their relation to each other and to the whole body of the plant-like animal either light-seeking or light-fleeing, a condition which results in a necessary expansion of the root-like parts.

Heat ranks with light as a cause of irritability, and we speak of positive and negative thermotropism, of positive and negative thermotaxis. Growing stems of the maze plant, for example, have a tendency to turn toward the heat. The growing flax turns away from the heat, as do also the roots of the germ plants if the temperature which comes from the source of heat is too high. The bunches of slime of

the flower of tan also have a heat irritability; they turn toward the heat. This can be proven by a simple experiment: If water having a temperature of  $7^{\circ}$  C be connected with water of  $30^{\circ}$  C by means of a piece of blotting paper, the flower of tan placed on the paper will crawl toward the side from which the warm water comes.

Heat and light are related to electricity, and since we know that this can strongly influence organisms we need not be surprised that it also is a source of irritation. If a constant galvanic current be forced through water containing infusoria from the species *Paramecium*, the little animals will collect about the negative pole. Some of the bacteria and other microscopic forms are attracted to the positive pole. Growing roots, on the other hand, avoid the galvanic current.

Of great importance is the irritation which gravitation arouses in plants and animals. The tendency to turn toward the earth and to turn away from it plays a great rôle in many organisms. We can best learn from the plants about the tendency to avoid the ground and to turn toward it. The tap-roots of germ plants are attracted toward the earth. For example, if the germ plant of a bean which has been taken from the earth is placed horizontally on moist soil in a pot darkened for the purpose of excluding the influence of the light and filled with aqueous vapor, then the point of the root would no longer grow in the direction of the root, but would bend and grow vertically toward the earth. On the other hand, the principal stem of the plant has a tendency to grow away from the earth. If a growing plant stalk is placed in a horizontal position, it will right itself, and that it does this as a result of irritation which gravitation produces has been proven by an ingenious experiment. The effect of the attractive force of the earth can be defeated by placing a growing plant into an apparatus, the movement of which constantly changes its position, whereby the force of gravity acts on it from various directions. Then the plant continues to grow in its original direction of de-

velopment. The direction of the growth of the lateral roots of the plant is also influenced by gravity, but they do not grow like the tap-root, vertically in the earth, but they make with it a fixed angle. If a box in which the germ plant of the broad bean is growing should be so turned that the point of the tap-root is turned upward, then the lateral roots, which now point diagonally upward, will bend downward so that they will assume the original angle with the direction of the force of gravity. According to this it is evident that plants owe their outward form largely to the force of gravity.

Pressure also has a great influence on the outward forms of many parts of plants, and indeed of many entire plants. The tendrils, as we find them in vines and the pea plants, have a pressure irritability; if they touch a support they curve toward it, and the constant pressure causes the tendrils to wind about it.

There is yet much to be said about the irritability of plants and animals, but all locomotion of animals must finally be attributed to irritation. Many object to this, because, for example, the motion of the dog from place to place seems to be the result of the greatest free will, while we think that we observe the strictest conformity to law in the tendency of the lower organisms to turn from or toward the irritating sources. But one of the lowest forms, as the flower of tan, may many times have an opportunity to exhibit its power to alter its course. It has a tendency to turn toward water and to flee from cold. What shall it do, then, if in coming from a dry place it encounters ice-cold water. From this to the highest animals there is every possible gradation. The difference between the higher and the lower animals is only this, that the copious thought apparatus and the complicated brain formation of the higher animals give an opportunity for the simultaneous action of a whole series of irritations, and that these irritations must always, or at least often, struggle for temporary leadership, one only finally winning the upper hand.

## THE PRESENT CONDITION OF FRANCE.

BY BISHOP H. W. WARREN, LL.D.

HOW one wishes to love La Belle France! I lately came off the monotony of the wide salt seas into the exquisiteness and witching beauty of Southern France. I had all the thrills and ecstasies of a lover. The play of color was entrancing, the liquid speech was melody; the clinging vines spoke only of affection; and the doves billed and cooed around a hundred dovecotes. I quite lost my heart that beautiful day to La Belle France. Though I knew she had the bright looks, witching airs, and languishments of a coquette I did not care to remember it. She has bright dashes of heroism and patriotism in her history, none brighter. She has dark tragedies in her blood, none darker. She gave a most strong hand of help to us in our colonial crisis, whether from love of liberty or hatred of her own inveterate foe we care not to inquire. We love her for it. But she gave us a deadly, mephitic disbelief in God and virtue afterward. The blight of her student and grisette life in the Latin Quarter is on some of our student life to-day. Her speech and pantomime are natural oratory. Bossuet and Bourdeloue are products to be expected. The *bon mots* are rivers of pearl and diamonds of language, but that language is salacious beyond belief. The spirit of liberty is represented as descending from the skies and alighting on the top of the Column of July. But the spirit of hell seethes up from below into a thousand dirty cellars and gorgeous saloons. France broke a thousand chains of oppression in its volcanic Revolution, but it gave to the world the guillotine and the Commune. The era of the revolution of pure good has not yet come. The bloody soil of war underlies the golden harvests of peace. Gethsemane yet lies at the foot of the Mount of Ascension.

When the first raptures subside we look

about the foundations on which ecstasies stand. What hintful good things, pregnant with future blessings, are in France to-day? Nearly thirty years of peace have passed since the awful scourging of the Franco-Prussian War. Let eyes of affection and hope see and tell what of to-day and to-morrow.

When the French peasants brought out their little hoards and paid the *milliards* of war indemnity to Germany they not only bought government bonds, but appreciation and respect. They were recognized as the strength of the nation, and Paris only the perfume and paper flowers. Since then much legislation has been in their interest rather than in the interest of their oppressors. The amount of legislation enacted for the good of the people in 1798 was stupendous, including provision for art schools, picture galleries, museums, experiment farms, and even the legislation of the superfluous  $\frac{2}{3}$  out of the language. Even that great measuring of the earth, that no other nation has ever attempted, was set on foot and begun in the hottest and bloodiest times of the Revolution, but these beneficent measures for the people were not carried out so extensively until after the poorer people showed where the real strength of the nation lay. The third republic has provided that every little town of 5,000 inhabitants or over shall have its picture gallery, museum, and library of one book for each inhabitant. Many new pictures are bought every year in Paris for distribution to these rural places. In this way fresh beauty and attractiveness are attained.

The value of small savings was made so clear by the payment of these *milliards* that savings have been greatly encouraged by the government post-office savings banks. These were established in 1880, and in the first year one eighth of the entire population

were depositors. In the year 1890 there were 348,695 new depositors putting by for a rainy day \$20,195,705. M. de Foville makes a graphic illustration of the deposits of the French people in ten years. The Eiffel Tower, he says, weighs about 150,000,000 pounds. Reconstructed of silver, it would need two stories added to represent these deposits in ten years. The amount is two *milliards* of francs, and the *milliard* is inconceivable by the human mind, that many minutes not having elapsed since the Christian era.

Of course a great amount of their savings is invested in the purchase of land, facilities for which are open to all. France has always been in advance of the purely feudal nations in this respect, but the tolls and wars have often rendered such a possession valueless or worse. As far back as the early crusades lords sold land to serfs to get means to equip themselves for the wars. Being taken prisoners, other lands were sold for ransoms. Before the Revolution one fourth of French soil belonged to peasants. In 1789 four million Frenchmen owned lands; now there are eight million landholders. One third of the waste or uncultivated land in France was redeemed to culture between 1844 and 1882.

In speaking of the improvement of human conditions the development of the school must be noted. The beginning, like nearly every good for France, was in the Revolution. Some of the best heads of the nation were falling by the thousand under a merciless knife in the Place de la Concord, but some of the seeds of greatest good were being forced into bloom, not fruit, by the strange fever-heat of the hour. The Convention decreed a lay, gratuitous, obligatory system of common school instruction. It failed of enforcement when the Convention failed of existence. The first educational law was made efficient in 1833. But so great was the work to be done that in 1872 two thirds of some departments could neither read nor write. But such better means have been adopted by the third republic that while in 1866 thirty-five per cent of the entire population were illiterate

this pitiable class was reduced to nineteen per cent in 1882.

The greatest emancipation of France has been from the conventual schools for the children of unknown fathers. These institutions seem to have been contrived to get individuals to give a dozen years of service for a most beggarly support. The proceeds of this labor went to enrich the church. The girls were taught to sew for sewing's sake and were taught nothing else. After ruining their eyes they were turned out at twenty-one years of age with no preparation for the joys, duties, or responsibilities of life. M. Jules Simon showed in his work "*L'Ouvrière*" that of each hundred dozen shirts sold in Paris eighty dozen were made in the convent schools. This not only meant ruin for those in the schools, but, by reason of such competition, distress for all seamstresses outside.

Besides these schools for the poor there were convent schools for the rich, where the girls were taught embroidery and other fancy work, till old enough to be married by their parents to some one they had scarcely seen.

In 1884 the crisis hour for public schools came and the act of that year developed education and heightened its spirit as never before. The *Lycée*, a public school for girls, is provided for in the cities and larger towns by the acts of 1880 and 1882. The curriculum is rather moderate, but it embraces the French language, common law, and domestic economy, including the making of clothes. There is no religious test or teaching. The tuition is not high, \$140 covering board and education for a year.

It is a singular fact that these girls are never for a moment free from espionage. Night and day they are under the strictest surveillance. This argues something very defective in the character of the girls, or boys, or possibly in the men who make the regulations. Still it is an improvement on the old system.

In consequence of these schools the French language begins to prevail in France. Previously it had been largely confined to Paris. Inhabitants of some

parts of France are unable now to understand the inhabitants of another part. Many Frenchmen cannot be addressed in French. The nation having been made up of a dozen fragments, some sunny and some saturnine, if not savage, and in the lack of liberal intercommunication, the various *patois* have not yet been merged into a common French. This is exactly what the common school is fitted to do.

It is doubtful if the business instinct and ability of women are so greatly developed anywhere else as in France. Certainly not elsewhere in Europe. They really keep the smaller hotels and shops, take produce to market, and are often the better half of a partnership. Probably the murderous wars that have so largely drafted the male population from home are somewhat responsible for this. But the vivacity, quick wit, and perception of the women rendered them apt pupils at first and able teachers afterward. Another reason for this business activity is the fact that the French bride almost always brings more or less capital as her marriage dower. It is often her own patient earning or saving. She cannot well be denied an active interest in the partnership.

Owing to the impossibility of doctors obtaining a living in the less densely settled parts of France the nuns were early educated, I should say installed, in the business of tooth-pulling, the art of physicing and midwifery. It is not strange that women are now quite prominent in medical practice.

It may seem strange to speak about the sobriety of women. But I am just come from London, where you may see women by the dozen in an hour in almost any dram-shop, and dozens dead drunk, sleeping off their stupor in the public parks. Montague Williams declares that "there is no mistake about the cause of nearly all the crime of the East End of London. The curse of all is drink, and I must say that the wives are often worse than the husbands." But people who have spent years in the busiest parts of Paris or the country declare that they have never seen a drunken woman.

Allusion to one of the greatest triumphs of science over natural evil must not be omitted. In the early sixties the vines, that great source of wealth in France, began to wither. In 1868 the pest was discovered and called "*phylloxera*." It was an almost invisible insect, propagating itself with appalling rapidity and spreading havoc irresistibly. France, that could once give a bottle of wine to every inhabitant of the globe, had to import wine for its own use. The loss soon reached a thousand million dollars. The silk-worm pest inflicted a similar loss about the same time. The genius of the famous Pasteur came into the battle. He observed that the vines on sandy soil and salt marshes were not affected, and that American vines were hardy enough to be exempt. The extirpation of the precious and beloved vines of sunny France and the planting of American vines were begun with such vigor that 300,000 hecateres, 742,200 acres, were replanted in a few years. Pasteur's remedy for rabies had very little value in comparison.

The common people are not only protected from the ravages formerly practiced by the military class, but French soldiers are not allowed to be in debt on pain of dismissal. They are much more rigidly required to attend to duties than previous to 1871, and they cannot billet themselves on the populace directly, or indirectly, by a system of credit that is never settled.

In speaking of the material welfare of France notice must be taken of the life, labors, and usefulness of an Englishman named Arthur Young, who may be termed the "apostle of the turnip." Such were the exactions and hardships that not only many patient people starved to death in France, but multitudes of cattle and sheep went sadly lowing and bleating over the desolate fields to their death. In one instance a flock of two thousand imported English sheep died for want of sufficient and suitable food. In consequence Arthur Young, a Suffolk county squire, consecrated himself to the missionary work of bringing salvation to these poor animals. A little more than a hundred years ago he traversed



France very widely, writing a journal full of shrewd observations and persuading the people to sow his turnip seed and the Manzel Wurzel grass, whereby he added millions to the productive value of French agriculture and comfort to millions of lives. If French beasts have a heaven hereafter Arthur Young should be the chief figure in their pantheon. How easily even a farmer's enthusiasm finds place in a world whose loftiest ideals are set to the keynote of sacrifice of self for others. Between the cup of cold water and the giving of the life of God there is room for the life work of every man.

Since 1871 France has made it obligatory upon every citizen to render three years' service in the army. It is a terrible tax. No payment of money can purchase exemption or substitute. Only the sick and deformed escape. And one is liable to be called upon at any time up to his forty-fifth year. To this awful tax there are very few exceptions, such as (a) teachers engaged to serve ten years, (b) students who have passed certain examinations, (c) students in theology preparing for the ministry, (d) a certain number of artisans. The student must give up his studies, the lover the prospect of marriage, the wife her husband, the business man his maturing plans. It is so unreasonable. Because of the schemes of ambitious rulers lands intersected by a narrow frith abhor each other, mountains interposed make enemies of nations. When will they learn war no more? The army is said to be under the power of the Catholic Church to an amazing degree. Men living that kind of life want instant absolution at hand. The courts are under the power of the army.

No one can think of France and her future without reckoning with the ultramontane papal church. Its iron hand in velvet glove has been on her throat since the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day.

Concerning Protestantism one devoutly wishes more could be said. Still much can be said. Out of eighty-six departments, one, La Gard, has been thoroughly Protestant from time immemorial. There are

whole villages where there is no Catholic church. The three senators representing La Gard in 1891 were all Protestants. When the bishop of Nimes died in 1889 a Protestant notary was appointed as trustee of his estate. The whole face of the country and the condition and ability of the people show that a higher life and range of thought has worked out its natural result.

Every one knows of the marvelous success of the McAll mission in a dozen cities, and that Père Hyacinth, an ex-priest, speaks to crowds weekly. We are not surprised to hear that the officers of a city ask the Protestant minister to expound the principles of his faith. Occasionally a whole commune, as Murat in October, 1891, accepts the services of the Protestant preacher. And the great newspaper of Paris, *Le Temps*, is thoroughly Protestant. Still we are obliged to confess that the Protestantism of France is too largely, as elsewhere, a question of organization and form, rather than of life. Could some Wesley do for France what was done for England and the rest of the world, the day of its emancipation would speedily dawn. This illumination would be far more difficult for France than for England. In the latter there was only the natural enmity of the human heart to overcome, and there was the power of conscience within to appeal to. In France there is the organized opposition of the Catholic Church and the conscience has both been corrupted and given over to the keeping of another. That this power will not fail to be exercised here as elsewhere is seen in the fact that when Dr. Gulpin opened a technical school in Nantes to teach girls the common arts of honest life, the pupils were threatened with the terror of punishments in this world and the world to come. South America is here. Spain, the Inquisition, and the massacre of St. Bartholomew are lacking only because the lovers of them do not dare.

About thirty years ago the freemasons determined to remove the symbol of the deity from the lodges of France. That, like the removal of the Bible from the altar of masonry in Peru, was held to be suicide.

The Grand Orient Lodge was at once disowned throughout the world. Making some alterations in their form of ritual and constitution the order went on, with what success I am not able to say. But a new Orient Lodge was formed which preserved the orthodox ideas of masonry, and it has been everywhere recognized as the only true representative of the order in the country. This fact is mentioned as one of the social factors in the future of the country wholly independent from any churchly influence. It is well known that the pope hates the masonic order, as the Psalmist says, "with a perfect hatred." It is fair to assume that the order cordially reciprocates the feeling.

In our looking with eyes of admiration at La Belle France we have mostly wandered in the leafy lanes of sweet country places on lovely moonlight evenings. The wish to love beautiful France is gratified. Such a lover can see Helen's beauty in a brow of Egypt. But when one comes to Paris, which, thank heaven, is not France, even the wish to love is taken away. Helen's brow and whole appearance is tricked out with the rouge and gauds of the public woman. I do not remember any heathen city where vice is so open and flamboyant.

Four years ago it was prophesied by an eminent statistician that France would soon become a decadent nation, the deaths outnumbering the births. It has come to pass. It has come to such degradation as prefers the enervation of lust to the strength of fatherhood and motherhood. Refusing to obey God's first command to multiply, they come under nature's curse to dwindle and become extinct. Their fate is startlingly and graphically portrayed as by a handwriting on the wall by a picture called "The Decay of the Roman Empire." The canvas is huge and the figures very numerous. Every suggestion of wine and riotous living, of bastard loves and naked women, of seductive music and worse than wasted youth crowds nine tenths of the picture. In one corner stand single embodiments of the hardness of the Roman soldier and the stoicism of the Roman philosopher. But the crowd of scented men and *blasé* women regard them not at all. They will regard nothing but Attila, "the Scourge of God," and his Goths and Huns. One hope remains, that into the Paris reality, as does not appear in the Roman picture, a preacher may come, some Jonah so crying aloud that he shall be heard.

## THE SOCIALIST PROPAGANDA IN GERMANY.

BY EDGAR MILHAUD.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "LA REVUE DE PARIS."

THE Social Democracy is at present the strongest party in Germany.

For thirty years its progress has been continuous. At the general elections to the Reichstag it obtained: in 1871, 124,655 votes; in 1881, 311,961; in 1890, 1,427,298; in 1893, 1,786,738, or nearly a quarter of the electors. These results are explained in part by the economic evolution of Germany since 1871, the prodigious development of manufactures, the movement toward concentration of capital, the periodical crises, and the increase of the unemployed. But it was necessary to awaken in the masses a consciousness of the eco-

nomic facts from which they suffered: this was the task of the socialist agitators. It is by the organization of the party, by the sacrifices made for the propaganda, that they have so well succeeded.

At the head of the party is a committee of direction which holds its power from the general assembly and is charged with the conduct of affairs. Confidential men put this committee of direction in communication with the members in different localities. In each locality the men of military age are grouped into political circles, which have generally taken the form of electoral circles because these are the political societies

which have least to fear from the police. These circles direct the local political activity, arrange public meetings, and assure them a good attendance. The committee of direction assures the unity of action of the party, while the local and provincial organizations permit the form of agitation to be adapted to the special conditions of the different regions of the empire.

It is necessary in order that the work of propagating go on that the party assure certain men independence, free them from preoccupation with material life, and permit them to fear nothing from any patron. The Social Democracy in Germany has this power.

The German socialists have understood how to make their party a rich party. They have assured the material conditions of their agitation in organizing their finances. The members pay contributions, of which one part serves to cover local expenses, another part is consecrated to agitation in the province, and the rest is sent to the committee of direction. The receipts of the committee, which proceed also from the profits of the central journal, the *Vorwärts*, and from the book-store of the *Vorwärts*, amounted two years ago to \$65,516, last year to \$66,571. These sums permit the party to guarantee means of subsistence to those who work for it. On principle it pays all its officers, allowing those who have no need of their salaries, like the millionaire Singer, to renounce them. The presidents of the committee of direction receive about \$12 per month, the cashier about \$36, the secretaries about \$60. As in Germany, the representatives do not receive an indemnity from the state, the Social Democracy gives its representatives \$1.45 per day. Those who take a house in Berlin simply to carry out their official duties receive a supplement of \$6 per month. Those who are in business are accorded a compensation of \$1.50 or \$2 per session. The editor-in-chief of the *Vorwärts* has a salary of \$1,746. The writers of the party receive honoraries for their work. Public speakers are also paid. The propagandists sent into the country are given pay for their expenses and their time. Agitators

whose presence is judged necessary are sent to certain localities. Funds are sent to the regions or provinces where the party is still feeble. Papers which are momentarily embarrassed receive subsidies. If a socialist paper has to furnish heavy bail, the party advances the sum. If a working man is discharged for his political activity, the party gives him aid. Sometimes it furnishes him the amount necessary to buy a small stock in trade, which will permit him to live while busying himself entirely with party affairs.

Aside from the officers of the party there is the *personnel* of the numerous socialist journals of the province; the *personnel* of the labor unions spreads over entire Germany. All these men are independent, or, rather, dependent only upon the working population, which gives them the means of living. They may devote themselves openly to the socialist cause; it is their trade to be agitators. To still others the spirit of unity of the members assures independent situations. For one member the others open a shop, for another they fit out a little restaurant, assuring them their patronage.

Thus there are in each locality agitators. They go to the suburbs or into the country in the evening or on Sunday to propagate their ideas. From the villages where the movement is strongly organized they radiate in all directions. But the party has its preferred orators. Some of them are in demand everywhere. These are the great chiefs, the "party divinities," Bebel, Liebknecht, Singer, Auer. The brilliancy of their great name is counted on to attract the attention of the crowds.

It is not everything to have propagandists, there must be assembly halls: this is one of the great difficulties of the propaganda. The authorities exert a pressure upon the restaurant-keepers to prevent their renting their halls to socialists. In the villages with garrisons, the procedure employed consists in forbidding to the military the establishments which socialists frequent: this is the military boycott. In order to retain their patronage some restaurant-keepers in Saxony went so far as to suspend at the

doors of their houses signs bearing these words: "Entrance forbidden to known socialists." The socialists borrow from their adversaries their weapon, the boycott. They make known to the proprietor who refuses his hall that the members will not patronize him as long as the hall is not at their disposal. When the working population is well organized and well disciplined, the boycott succeeds. The socialists have at Berlin only one small hall of their own; by a well-conducted boycott they have acquired all that they need.

In certain localities the members have combined to buy or construct establishments with an assembly hall: they have founded working men's casinos. But even then the problem is not definitely settled. When the authorities are displeased with these casinos they throw a thousand difficulties in their way. In the country very often the socialists cannot obtain a hall, but they are not discouraged, they hold their meetings in the open air, they speak in the fields. But often the police forbid these open-air meetings.

When the socialists have succeeded in procuring a hall, they are not at the end of their difficulties. If the law in regard to public assemblies varies in different states of the empire, it is almost everywhere severe and everywhere it is rigorously interpreted against the socialists. Although the law of exception no longer exists, they are always treated differently from other citizens. These measures, however, do not arrest the success of the party. On the contrary, they create sympathy for the socialists. Social Democrats agree in recognizing that the police authorities, by forbidding public meetings, dissolving societies, and seizing leaflets, bring about the inverse result of the one sought. These measures of repression awaken the attention of the masses.

When the meeting is authorized it does not take place, except in a few states of the South, without one or two police officers in uniform taking their place near the orator and stenographing his words. And even then they attempt to prevent the speaking on the slightest pretext.

When the propagandists venture into the agricultural regions, which are the fiefs of the *Junker*, or well dominated by the clergy, they are often the object of violence from part of the population. When meetings take place it is not rare that they are disturbed by cries, and end in scuffles. If it happens that the socialists obtain a hall in a new country, the priests, schoolmasters, manufacturers, and proprietors come to the meeting and try by their interruptions to create a disturbance.

The conferences of the socialists are always controversial. When the orator has finished speaking a discussion opens. The opponents speak and the orator replies. In the country the people who are little informed, and often do not know how to read, follow the orator with difficulty. Therefore after the meeting he does not withdraw, but converses with them in little groups, giving explanations to each one. He comes back ten times to the same point and begins again without discouragement the same course of reasoning. Leaflets, papers, and pamphlets are distributed to the auditors. An attempt is made to form relations with the inhabitants of the place. A few months after another meeting is held. When a little nucleus of members has been created, the care of continuing the agitation is intrusted to them. The funds they need are sent to them and the writings of propagandism. It is the principle of the Social Democrats to make arise from each medium men charged with spreading socialist ideas. The industrial centers have been conquered the day when the working men are addressed by their fellow laborers.

The most active form of socialist agitation in Germany is the electoral agitation. In becoming a great political party the Social Democracy has felt the need of utilizing its power to ameliorate as much as possible the situation of the laboring classes. The members take part without compromise in all the elections in which present legislation permits them to participate with chances of success, and each one is for them an occasion for propagating their ideas. In the elections for the Reichstag, the socialist agitation at-



tains its maximum intensity. It extends over all the territory; everywhere candidates are brought forward, the party treasury is emptied, the reserve funds are exhausted; the ideas of the party penetrate into the most remote regions. The opponents of the party say that the general elections are for the Social Democracy like great tides "which leave everywhere after them in the country little ponds in which the socialist bacillus develops in order then progressively to infect the neighborhood."

During the electoral period meetings are organized on all sides, pamphlets and leaflets inundate the country. The political situation is exposed, what the party in power has done for the people is related, the people are shown that it is upon them that the heaviest taxes fall, and are warned of the dangers which threaten them. The principles of the party are affirmed.

The agitation commenced in the country during the elections continues to the Reichstag. For the German socialists the principal object of parliamentary activity is propagandism. Debates upon the budget are for them an occasion for criticizing the manner of distributing imposts and the entire present social order. They propose bills. If they are rejected, this check serves to show them that the only party which really represents the interests of the workmen is that of the Socialist Democracy, and in order that the great speeches made in the Reichstag may produce their entire effect in the country they are printed in the form of pamphlets and scattered. In 1893 there took place the far-famed debate upon "The Future State." Seventeen hundred thousand copies of the speech of Bebel were distributed.

The party finds a valuable auxiliary in the professional unions of working men, which are now a power. About 350,000 workmen are members of centralized unions. The law regarding associations forbids these unions to occupy themselves with politics and limits their action to defending the professional interests of their members. But without entering into politics they furnish recruits to the Social Democracy. The

workman, indifferent to the final end pursued by the party, is influenced by the perspective of near-by material advantages and enrolls in the union. Now, in fact, the great majority of the members of the union are socialists. The chiefs of the union are almost all active in the political movement. The newcomer, still a stranger to economic and social problems, will find himself placed in a socialist environment. No mention is made in the meeting of the party and the elections, but the principle of the antagonism of labor and capital is professed; the struggle for salaries is prepared; strikes are organized; subsidies are sent to striking workmen at the other end of the empire, sometimes in other countries, beyond the mountains, beyond the seas. The union thus acquires a feeling that it is engaged in a great struggle, it forms combative habits. Furthermore, the union has its journal, and the journal may occupy itself with politics; the union has its public meetings, and in these public meetings political subjects are not forbidden. And the orator says what the journal says, that a single party represents in the political world the interests of the laboring class—the Social Democracy. The newcomer is gained little by little; the members do not fail to take him to the public meetings of the party; on the days of their great celebrations, the 18th of March and the 1st of May, he will follow the others; on election day he will go with them to cast his vote.

The press, pamphlets, public gatherings, political circles, and unions are not the party's only means of action. Its members are found in societies for games, for singing, for instruction, at the socialist fêtes, in the little party restaurants. These restaurants are distinguished from other little restaurants in that they are not entirely public restaurants. They are organized, disciplined groupings.

Like the little restaurants, the different societies that the members frequent form rallying places. It is by the great number of groups which they organize, societies for all sorts of games, clubs of smokers, singing societies, societies for instruction, unions as



well as political societies, that the Social Democrats are on the way toward assuring the diffusion in a few days of hundreds of thousands of new party publications. It is by these too that they prepare the success of the great public meetings, the assemblies of the masses.

The fêtes of the party are numerous. Besides those which are special to each society, there are celebrated in almost all Germany the two great solemnities of the 18th of March and the 1st of May, which are for the socialist the fête of the past and mourning and the fête of the future and hope. For the 18th of March public meetings are organized where the signification of this double anniversary is recalled—the ephemeral victory of the people of Berlin in 1848 and that of the Parisians in 1871.

The labor movement in Germany is not simply an economic and political movement. The chiefs of socialism, Marx and Engels, founded their doctrine and their policy upon a philosophical view of the world. Lassalle had spread among the masses the saying of Bacon, "Knowledge is power." The German labor movement is on one side a movement of intellectual culture. This characteristic appears clearly when the interior life of the socialist groups is examined.

The political circles have conferences of study in their sessions. They concern themselves especially with economic and social problems, but it is not rarely that they are occupied with scientific questions.

Before the law against socialists there existed already in Germany societies for the instruction of workmen. Under the *régime* of exception these took on a great importance. When people could not unite in political groups, they met there.

At Berlin in the last four years of the *régime* of exception appeared lecture clubs, debating clubs, clubs for instruction. People became enamored of literary questions, modern art, realism, naturalism. They read Ibsen, Hauptmann, Zola, Guy de Maupassant. They were pleased with a painting of society which did not dissemble its uglinesses. They considered scientific and social questions also. The Social Democracy possesses also at Berlin an institute for the instruction of workmen and two free people's theaters.

The example of Berlin had been followed in the provinces, Hamburg and Hanover possessing their free people's theaters. Here the artistic culture of the members is pursued before anything else, but when the occasion presents itself other considerations are not dissembled.

The artistic emotion does not entirely stifle the instinct of combat in the members, but it would be to misunderstand the meaning of these free theaters of the people to see in them only instruments of propagandism, just as it would be to misunderstand the meaning of the societies of instruction to see in them exclusively schools of orators and agitators. The declared intention of the Social Democracy is to elevate the people, to open to them the domain of science as well as the domain of art. In doing this they do not believe in forgetting the final end of socialist action. Just as they struggle in the unions to obtain the best conditions of work and to double the vital force of the workman, so they seek to increase his intellectual power. They say that it needs robust natures, solid intelligences, ideal minds to wage war against present society and prepare the longed-for society of the future.

## HISTORY AS IT IS MADE.\*

### November Elections.

Returns of elections held in nearly all the states of the Union last month indicate Republican control of both branches of the Fifty-sixth Congress, whose term begins March 4, 1899. The president thus secures support for the administration policy at a critical juncture. The next Senate of the United States will have an ample working majority of Republican members, estimated at seventeen. The next House of Representatives will probably be Republican by a majority not more than one quarter the majority in the present House. Generally speaking, the Republicans lost in congressional elections in Eastern States and gained in Western States (Illinois and Indiana excepted). Republican gains in control of legislatures which will elect United States senators appeared in all sections except the South. Fusion state tickets were successful in five states, Colorado, Idaho, Minnesota, Montana, and

victories. Republicans at this writing claim victory for state tickets in twenty-four states. Among the notable Republican victors are Theodore Roosevelt, governor of New York; W. A. Stone, governor of Pennsylvania; Hazen S. Pingree, governor of Michigan (reelected); W. E. Stanley, governor of Kansas; Henry Gage, governor of California. The Republican majority in Ohio was remarkable for an "off year." The defeat of fusionists in legislative contests in the Dakotas and the state of Washington is especially noteworthy.

### The Peace Commission at Work.

Although nothing official has been given out by the peace commissioners concerning their deliberations in Paris, reports of the proceedings indicate that three out of the four important sections of the protocol have been disposed of. In accordance with its provisions the Spanish government gives up



THE SPANISH PEACE COMMISSIONERS.

Nebraska. Fourteen states (styled southern save Utah) reported straight Democratic

all sovereignty and title to Cuba. The Spanish commissioners endeavored to secure from the United States an assumption of the so-called Cuban debt, amounting to

\* This department, together with the book "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes the special C. L. S. C. course Current History, for the reading of which a seal is given.

nearly five hundred million dollars. They claimed that the United States succeeded to sovereignty in the island and that this debt went with the sovereignty. The United States commissioners, however, contended that this government merely aided Cuba to secure her freedom; that Spain incurred the obligations in attempting to maintain her sovereignty and took the chances of war upon them, and that the United States has assumed neither sovereignty nor the financial obligations. Under the terms of the protocol, Puerto Rico and other islands of the West Indies have been ceded to the United States, together with one of the islands of the Ladrone archipelago (Guam). The evacuation of Cuba and Puerto Rico proceeds. The section of the protocol dealing with the Philippines reads as follows:

The United States will occupy and hold the city, bay, and harbor of Manila, pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace which shall determine the control, disposition, and government of the Philippines.

It is understood that the American commissioners demand the entire group of the Philippines, proposing to assume only that part of the Philippine debt which has been expended in public works, permanent improvements, etc., to an amount not exceeding \$40,000,000. The Spanish commissioners insist that under the terms of the protocol the United States has no ultimate rights in the Philippines except those which Spain shall grant in the course of the present negotiations for a treaty of peace. The Spanish commissioners further claim that the United States has unlawfully held Spaniards prisoners since the date of the protocol suspending hostilities; that we have un-

lawfully appropriated customs duties; that it was understood when the protocol was signed that Spanish sovereignty in the Philippines was not questioned, and that the capture of Manila after the protocol was signed does not in any sense make the United States the possessor of sovereignty over the islands through conquest.

#### New Political Figures.

To the office of first assistant secretary of state, President McKinley has appointed David J. Hill, ex-president of Rochester

University. Dr. Hill is a graduate of Bucknell University, and became president of that institution in 1879. He is widely known through his series of text-books on rhetoric, and has published books on socialism and psychology. He was president of the University of Rochester from 1889 to 1896, and took active part in recent political campaigns. He returns to Washington from Paris, where he has been attending lectures on international law.

From the state of Oregon comes a new senator to succeed Mr. Corbett in the upper

branch at Washington. After a long contest the Republicans in the state legislature agreed to support Joseph Simon, of Portland, who is an advocate of retaining the entire group of Philippine Islands and whose election is a gain for the gold standard forces in a doubtful section. Senator Simon is a Jew, born in Germany in 1851, but a resident of Portland since 1856. He will not be the first Jew to hold a seat in the Senate, three others having preceded him: D. L. Yulee, of Florida, J. P. Benjamin, and B. F. Jonas, both of Louisiana.



DAVID J. HILL.  
Assistant Secretary of State.

**An Indian Outbreak.**

With foreign problems to face we are not without home troubles to look after. In the Northwest an Indian outbreak has arrested public attention. Eight soldiers were killed and twelve wounded in an encounter with the Pillager tribe of the Chippewa nation, Minnesota. Among the killed was Major M. C. Wilkinson, who had recently returned from the Santiago campaign. It is admitted without hesitation that the outbreak was due to the conduct of white men. The Indians have been victimized by those who sought to make profit out of the timber rights belonging to the Indians; the open conflict took place because of the attempt of deputy-marshals to compel one of the Pillager chiefs to testify regarding violations of the liquor laws. It had been the practice of these marshals to bring such witnesses hundreds of miles to the cities of Duluth and Minneapolis, and they had made a business of not only making the fees out of such cases, but of dividing with those who boarded such witnesses and leaving the Indians to get back to their reservations as best they could. A chief who had walked all the way home on a previous occasion refused to leave his reservation to testify again, and it was in taking his part against the deputies and the soldiers who accompanied them that the bloody encounter broke out. The outbreak served to direct attention to the wrongs suffered by the Indians, and the commissioner of Indian affairs is quoted as expressing the opinion that the white people have been sufficiently scared to let the Indians alone for a time.

**Labor Conflict in Illinois.**

In the state of Illinois labor troubles culminated in a pitched battle at Virden, in the coal-mining region, resulting in the death of twelve men and the wounding of about twice that number. The immediate occasion of this conflict was the arrival of a train-load of negroes imported from southern states by the Chicago-Virden Coal Company. Trouble had been brewing in these regions ever since the first of April, when the coal companies decided that they could

not pay the scale which had been fixed for the different districts throughout the country after the strikes in Pennsylvania and West Virginia. The miners' organization demanded wages according to the scale;



SENATOR JOSEPH SIMON, OF OREGON.

the coal companies offered about two thirds the scale. The state board of arbitrators tried to secure a compromise, but the companies refused to grant the compromise figure. The next move on the part of the companies was to secure men at the wages offered. Stockades were built about the mines and armed guards employed to protect the property. The governor was also informed that the companies expected protection of their property by the state troops if necessary. When negroes were brought into the town of Pana several riots occurred, and the governor sent troops to the scene to preserve order, but instructed them not to assist the mine-owners in operating their mines with imported labor. From Virden the governor was informed by the Chicago-Virden Company that protection was expected upon the arrival of men to work its mines. The governor, however, responded that the company would bring such labor into the state at its peril. When the attempt was made to run a train-load of negroes into the stockade a general conflict took place, in which strikers, armed guards

on the train, and guards of the stockade were killed and wounded. The negroes were sent to other cities to be cared for, and the governor sent troops to Virden under orders to disarm not only the strikers, but the guards of the stockade. In public prints the governor and the officials of the coal company accused each other of responsibility for the bloodshed. Governor Tanner went so far as to declare that the mine-owners would be prosecuted in the courts for murder; he declared that state inspectors had found out that a number of the negroes imported came from convict labor gangs in the South, and he asserted that even if the law did not warrant him in prohibiting the importation of such labor to compete with that of Illinois citizens, he believed that he was warranted in prohibiting its entrance to the state in accordance with his judgment of public sentiment. On the other hand, the governor was roundly abused for failing to protect the company in its exercise of legal rights, and in many quarters the president of the United States was declared to be derelict in his duty of seeing that property rights were properly protected under the provision of the constitution of the United States.

#### Whites vs. Blacks.

The approach of the fall elections in the South was marked by signs of an irrepressible conflict between the whites and the blacks. In two days the newspapers reported the killing of ten negroes and four white men, and the wounding of four negroes and seven white men in five Southern States—Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, and Texas. In North Carolina the race issue was made a part of the state campaign, apparently to the exclusion of any other issue. It appears that the political combination of Republicans and Populists had resulted in the election of a Republican governor and the filling of many minor offices throughout the state by negroes. The Democrats early raised the issue of "negro domination," and a number of riots marked the early stages of the campaign. The principal papers of the state insisted

that the race question was not a party question, as the fusionists claimed, and throughout the newspaper press of the Southern States the necessity of preserving government by white men was generally insisted upon. The claim was made that the conflict in Illinois showed that not in the South alone must the negroes be given to understand that this is, and must be, a "white man's country."

#### Dreyfus Case Revision.

The famous Dreyfus case has gone into the hands of the Court of Cassation, from which a final decision may reasonably be expected.



CAPT. ALFRED DREYFUS.

The reports from which the progress of the case was outlined in this department last month proved to be somewhat inaccurate. The fact seems to have been that at first the case was submitted only to a committee of the court, and that the committee was evenly divided for and against revision. The Brisson cabinet thereupon referred the case to the full court, which, after a hearing, has decided that the first Dreyfus court-martial was illegal. The court has also undertaken a supplementary inquiry into the case, refusing to liberate Captain



Dreyfus pending its decision. The most sensational feature of the review of the case upon which the court based its action consisted of part of a letter reciting interviews which Colonel Picquart had with General Gonze, the former asserting that Dreyfus was innocent, and the latter stating that General Mercier, ex-minister of war, and General Saussier, ex-military governor of Paris, were mixed up in this affair, and asking if Colonel Picquart wished to compromise them. It is asserted that the Court of Cassation has the alternative of deciding the guilt or innocence of Dreyfus, or referring the case to a new court-martial, so that either a final decision or a further trial of the case may be the outcome. The Brisson cabinet, which succeeded in deferring the case to the court, has gone out of power by reason of failure to secure a vote of confidence in the Chamber of Deputies. That body during a disgracefully riotous session supported a resolution demanding an "end to the campaign of insult against the army," after having passed, by a comparatively small majority, a resolution presented by the government affirming the supremacy of the civil power. The Brisson cabinet fell after the resignation of M. Chanoine, the fifth minister of war who has declared his conviction that Dreyfus is guilty. A new cabinet has been formed with M. Charles Dupuy as premier and M. De Freycinet minister of war. The latter is a civilian, has been four times prime minister, and is supposed to favor a revision of the Dreyfus case.

**Fashoda.** In spite of the change in the cabinet of France, no change has taken place in the Foreign Office, M. Delcasse holding over. And the foreign policy of France is considered no small



MAJOR MARCHAND.

factor in the national crisis which continues to hang over the French Republic. It has been supposed that some foreign complications might yet serve to give the army an opportunity to offset the injury suffered by the developments in the Dreyfus case. It seemed for a time that a clash between the French and English in Africa could not be avoided. The victory of General Kitchener over the dervishes at Omdurman had hardly been recorded when Major Marchand, a French explorer, accompanied by a few men, had reached Fashoda on the Nile, a few hundred miles south of the scene of General Kitchener's triumph. Fashoda is within the territory claimed to have been reconquered by the British forces, and Great Britain declared at once that Major Marchand's arrival with the French flag did not constitute a conquest, and that he must withdraw. To understand the conflict of claims thus brought to light, it is to be remembered that the French have been seeking to



EMPEROR WILLIAM II.



LUCIEN LEE KINSOLVING.

Protestant Episcopal Missionary Bishop of Rio Grande de Sul.

extend their sphere across Africa from possessions in the East and West, while England's operations are popularly reckoned as part of a project to connect her possessions in Egypt on the north with Cape Town colony on the south. Fashoda is, consequently, a sort of crossroads. It is announced authoritatively in Great Britain that France has agreed to withdraw from Fashoda, whither General Kitchener immediately sent an expedition and raised the British flag. Lord Salisbury says that although France has agreed to evacuate that point, serious complications with the French government are by no means wholly terminated. And the French press intimates that the entire question of British occupation of Egypt may be expected to come before all the powers interested, on account of Great Britain's present attitude.

#### Emperor William's Pilgrimage.

Emperor William of Germany has been making a spectacular trip to the Holy Land, with the avowed object of participating in the dedication of the Church of the Redeemer, at Jerusalem. This church is located upon ground given to King William I. of Prussia by the sultan of Turkey many years ago, and German contractors have erected the

building. On the way to Jerusalem the emperor and his wife were the guests of the sultan at Constantinople, where public demonstrations were held in honor of the distinguished visitors, and gifts showered upon them by the ruler of Turkey. Incidentally, the emperor, while at Constantinople, turned over the gift of the abode of the Virgin Mary to the German Catholics, a move which seemed to create quite as favorable an impression among Catholics as the journey to dedicate a Protestant church in Jerusalem serves to make upon German Protestants. Reports of political understandings between the kaiser and the sultan as a result of their meeting have found their way into print, together with the story of an anarchist plot at Alexandria against the life of the emperor.

**Church Movements.** Church problems in our new possessions confront denominational organizations, and the various boards of missions of Protestant denominations have taken steps to secure representation in the new fields. The Roman Catholic Church has already appointed Archbishop Chappelle, of New Orleans, apostolic delegate to Cuba. The Protestant Episcopal Church, through its General Con-



THE LATE COL. GEORGE E. WARING.

vention held in Washington, has taken a notable step in deciding to establish missions in Roman Catholic countries. By the selection of Rev. Mr. Kinsolving as missionary bishop-elect, this church has inaugurated a movement to establish an autonomous church to be known as the Church of the United States of Brazil. The plan further contemplates the establishment of two other churches of this character in other Roman Catholic countries.

**Important Court Decisions.** The amount of history made by the courts in this country

is not always appreciated. The Supreme Court of the United States, in a decision read by Justice Peckham, has declared the Joint-Traffic Association to be unlawful and thus made of no effect an agreement between more than thirty of the great railroad systems in this country. The railroad companies had agreed upon a plan of central management calculated to prevent rate-cutting, but the Supreme Court found that the agreement constituted a restraint of trade which was unlawful under the Interstate Commerce Act, and that such an agreement was also a violation of the anti-trust law known as the "Sherman Act" of 1890. The court discovered no essential difference between this association and the Trans-Missouri Freight Association, which a previous decision of the Supreme Court had declared unlawful. The court took the ground that the effect of such an agreement was to stifle competition and that Congress was the judge of the necessity and propriety of legislation to control or prohibit such a combination so far as it operates upon and restrains interstate commerce. At the same time, the Supreme Court decided that the Kansas City Live-Stock Exchange and another exchange similar to it, organized by cattle-dealers in Kansas and Missouri, were purely local

associations, not engaged in interstate traffic within the meaning of the anti-trust law, and therefore not unlawful.

Two decisions from the Supreme Court of the state of Illinois are exceedingly interesting. The Illinois court decided that the Pullman Palace Car Company had violated the provisions of its charter, having had no right to own the city of Pullman or to own stock in other corporations. The court decided that the company had a right to own the buildings in which its general offices are located, to own land for the handling of its cars, and that it could properly furnish power to another in-



THE LATE PIERRE FUVIS DE CHAVANNES.

dustry located there. But the company had taken upon itself the exercise of various unlawful practices under that clause of its charter which gave it the privilege to exercise powers necessary for the prosecution of its business. The decision of the court confines the company to the exercise of only those powers strictly defined by its charter. Another decision by this court

upholding the constitutionality of the Toren's systems of registration of land titles in Cook County (Chicago) determines the practicability of a system which is likely to be sooner or later adopted in state after state of the Union. Massachusetts has a similar law already in operation. It provides for the registration of the title to land with a county official and renders the expensive searching for titles by lawyers and title companies unnecessary.

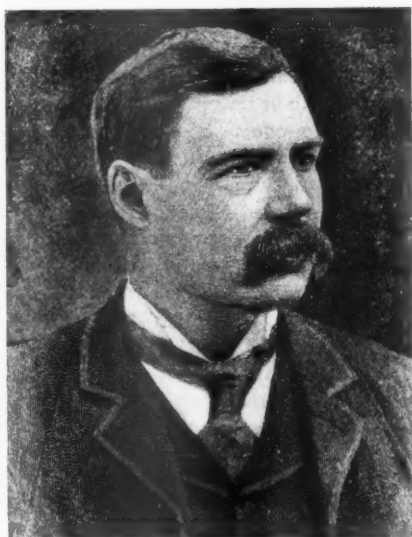
Col. George E. Waring.

Col. George E. Waring, who died on October 29, attained prominence through services of a unique character. He sacrificed his life in undertaking a commission from the president to investigate the sanitary conditions in Cuba, dying of yellow fever after his return to New York City. Colonel Waring's career has been called typically American. It began with the study of engineering, agriculture, and agricultural chemistry. He was in turn manager of the Greeley Experimental Farm; drainage engineer of Central Park, New York City; manager of the Ogden Farm; in charge of the sewerage system in Memphis when the yellow fever broke out there in 1878 (he introduced original methods of separating house drainage from surface drainage, which have been adopted in many cities); member of the National Board of Health, and assistant engineer of New Orleans. When war broke out in 1861 he was commissioned a major, and rose to be a colonel, commanding the Fourth Missouri Cavalry. He became head of the Street Cleaning Department of New York City in 1895, and, within three years, in spite of ridicule and opposition, thoroughly reformed the department and gained international reputation thereby. Colonel Waring was an Independent in politics, and wrote a number of interesting stories and tales of travel.

Obituary.

During November occurred the death of M. Pierre Puvis de Chavannes, a French painter, who became best known in this country by his paintings for the Boston Public Library. His work of

decorating the most important parts of the walls surrounding and enclosing the staircase in that building includes a central composition entitled "The Muses Greeting the Genius of Enlightenment," together with panels representing Astronomy, Chemistry, Physics, History, and Philosophy, Pastoral, Dramatic, and Epic Poetry. He was born in Lyons in 1824, and his first picture was accepted at the Salon in 1859. Of his decorative pictures, the best examples are said to be in the Sorbonne and the Pantheon. Harold Frederic, London correspondent of the *New York Times*, died at Henley on October 19 at the age of forty-two.



THE LATE HAROLD FREDERIC.

He was a graduate of Hamilton College and became chief editorial writer of the *Utica Observer* and editor of the *Albany Evening Journal*, leaving that position to become London correspondent in 1884. Of nine novels which he wrote, perhaps the best known are "The Damnation of Theron Ware" and "March Hares." The month's obituary record also includes the name of David A. Wells, of Connecticut, who began to be known as an economic writer at the time of the creation of the national debt to meet the expenses of the Civil War.

## C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

### OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

#### FOR DECEMBER.

##### *First Week* (ending December 3).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter X.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XVII. and XXII.

#### IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Central Element of Organized Matter."

##### *Second Week* (ending December 10).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter XI.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXIII., XXIV., and XXV.

#### IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Immensity of London."

"The Human Life of God."

##### *Third Week* (ending December 17).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter XII.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXVI. and XXVII.

#### IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Sir Robert Peel."

##### *Fourth Week* (ending December 24).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter XIII.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXVIII., XXIX., and XXX.

#### IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Telegraphs and Telephones."

"Factory Life and Legislation in England."

#### FOR JANUARY.

##### *First Week* (ending January 7).

"Twenty Centuries of English History." Chapter XIV.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapter XVIII.

#### IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Old Bailey."

### SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

#### FOR DECEMBER.

##### *First Week.*

1. The Lesson.
2. An Essay—Socialism in Europe.
3. A Paper—The Russian peasantry.
4. A Paper—Church and state under Henry VIII. of England.
5. Book Review—"The Cloister and the Hearth," by Charles Reade.

##### *Second Week.*

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—The Elizabethan era.
3. Book Review—"Westward Ho!" by Charles Kingsley.
4. A Geographical Study—The Turkish Empire.

##### *Third Week.*

##### *Cromwell Day—December 16.*

- "Never was any man so conspicuously born for sovereignty."
1. A Talk—Cromwell's ancestry.

2. Biographical Sketch—Cromwell's early life.
3. A Paper—Cromwell's career as a soldier.
4. Historical Study—England under Cromwell.

##### *Fourth Week.*

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—Scotland under Cromwell and Charles II.
3. Select Reading—"The Grey Champion," by Hawthorne.
4. A Paper—The political situation in Europe.

#### FOR JANUARY.

##### *First Week.*

1. The Lesson.
2. Historical Study—Ireland.
3. A Paper—The development of the English Parliament.
4. A Paper—Protestantism in the seventeenth century.



## SYLLABUS OF C. L. S. C. READING.

### REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

#### "TWENTY CENTURIES OF ENGLISH HISTORY."

#### X.—THE TUDOR DESPOTISM, 1485 A. D.—1547 A. D.

1. General survey of the Tudor dynasty (p. 161).
2. The reign of Henry VII. (pp. 161-166).
  - (1) Previous limitations on royal power.
  - (2) Early despotic monarchs.
  - (3) The king's first care.

"The king-maker." See page 155 of the text-book.

- (4) The pretenders.
- (5) Henry's tyranny.
- (6) Changes in weapons of warfare.
- (7) Methods of raising money.
- (8) The king's death.
- (9) Royal marriages.
3. The reign of Henry VIII. (pp. 166-183).
  - (1) The king's character.
  - (2) Reception of the king.
  - (3) The Holy League.

"Guinegate" [gēn-gāt']. A town in Northern France.

- (4) Flodden Field.
- (5) Seven years of peace.
- (6) Alliance of England with Germany.
- (7) Foreign war.
- (8) Fall of Wolsey.
- (9) Rise of Cromwell.
- (10) Quarrel with the pope.
- (11) The act of supremacy.
- (12) Reorganization of the church.
- (13) Abolition of the monasteries.
- (14) The revolt.
- (15) Distribution of spoils.
- (16) Beginning of the Reformation.
- (17) Use of the English Bible.
- (18) The Six Articles.
- (19) Cromwell's fall.
- (20) Condition of Parliament.
- (21) Reforms of doctrine.
- (22) Council of Trent.
- (23) Martyrdom.
- (24) The king's death.
- (25) Affairs in Scotland.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. When Henry VII. ascended the throne what limitations had been placed on the royal power?
2. Describe Henry VII.'s method of administration.
3. What royal marriages assume importance in the history of the sixteenth century?
4. Give a history of the Protestant Reformation during the reign of Henry VIII.

5. What was the central event of Henry VIII.'s reign, and to what did it lead?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What secured for Wolsey the deanery of Lincoln?
2. How did King Henry VII. regard the movement known as the Revival of Letters?

#### XI.—THE LATER TUDORS, 1547 A. D.—1603 A. D.

1. The royal will (p. 184).
2. The government under Edward VI. (pp. 184-189).

- (1) The regency.
- (2) Affairs in Scotland.

"Pinkie Cleugh" [klūc]. A place a few miles east of Edinburgh.

- (3) Ecclesiastical reforms.

"Bucer" [bū'ser]. A German, and one of Luther's co-workers. He was a professor of theology in Cambridge.

"Martyr." An Italian by birth and a Catholic by education. After his conversion to the Reformed religion he became a professor of theology at Strasbourg, and in 1549 he was appointed to the professorship of divinity at Oxford.

- (4) Methods of reform.
- (5) Discontent among agriculturists.
- (6) Fall of Somerset.
- (7) Institutions founded by Edward.

The Blue Coat School, so called from the dress of the pupils, is one of London's oldest institutions for the education of poor fatherless children and foundlings.

- (8) Death of Edward VI.
- (9) The plans for the succession.

3. The reign of Queen Mary (pp. 189-195).

- (1) The fall of Northumberland.
- (2) Restoration of the old religious system.
- (3) The Spanish marriage.
  - (a) Object of the alliance.
  - (b) Opposition.
  - (c) Executions.
  - (d) Parliamentary acts.

- (4) Attacks against Protestantism.
- (5) The queen's misfortunes.

4. The reign of Queen Elizabeth (pp. 195-214).

- (1) Education and character of the queen.
- (2) Attitude toward the Reformation.
- (3) Repeal of ecclesiastical laws.
- (4) Philip's power.
- (5) Catholic reaction.
- (6) The queen's diplomacy.

- (7) Danger in the North.
- (8) The Test Act.
- (9) Deposition of Queen Mary.
- (10) Elizabeth's perplexities.
- (11) Bull of Deposition.
- (12) Conspiracies.

"Ridolfi" [re-dol'fe]. An Italian banker and merchant in London who was secretly engaged in the pope's service. He also acted as an agent for some continental princes.

- (13) The new sects.
- (14) Progress of Protestantism.
- (15) Work of the Jesuits.
- (16) Years of peace.
- (17) The Catholic League.
- (18) Leicester's expedition.
- (19) Plot of Babington.
- (20) The Spanish war.
- (21) Result of Elizabeth's diplomacy.
- (22) Affairs in Ireland.
- (23) The queen's attitude toward Parliament.
- (24) Commercial interests.
- (25) The queen's last years.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Sketch the progress of Protestantism from 1547 to 1603.
2. Give an account of the reign of Mary Tudor.
3. What circumstances determined the policy of Queen Elizabeth?
4. Describe the Spanish war in Elizabeth's reign.
5. Describe the general progress of the English nation in Queen Elizabeth's reign.

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who was the first English sovereign to disclaim religious differences as a ground for execution?
2. Who was at the head of the commission which composed the first English prayer-book?

## XII.—CAVALIER AND ROUNDHEAD, 1603 A. D.—1649 A. D.

1. The reign of James I. (pp. 216-225).
  - (1) The king's character.
  - (2) The Millenary Petition.
  - (3) Conference at Hampton Court.
  - (4) The king's theory of government.
  - (5) First Parliament.
  - (6) Gunpowder Plot.
  - (7) Question of revenue.
  - (8) Court favorites.
  - (9) The king's method of administration.
  - (10) Corruption in government circles.
  - (11) Proposed alliance with Spain.
  - (12) The third Parliament.
  - (13) Failure of the Spanish marriage.
  - (14) The fourth Parliament.
2. The reign of Charles I. to 1640 (pp. 225-237).
  - (1) Personality of the king.

- (2) The first and second Parliaments.
- (3) The Rochelle affair.
- (4) The war loan.
- (5) The third Parliament.
  - (a) Prominent members.
  - (b) Petition of Right.
  - (c) The king's power.
  - (d) Arrest of members.

- (6) Period of personal government.
  - (a) The three assistants.
  - (b) Method of government.
  - (c) Sources of revenue.
  - (d) Persecutions.
  - (e) Efforts to reform the Scottish Kirk.
  - (f) Affairs in Ireland.
  - (g) The Short Parliament.
  - (h) The second Bishops' War.

## 3. The Long Parliament under Charles I. (pp. 237-249).

- (1) Composition of Parliament.
- (2) Proceedings before the autumnal recess.
- (3) Ulster massacres.
- (4) Grand Remonstrance.
- (5) Bishops excluded from the House of Lords.
- (6) Attempted arrest of members.
- (7) Nineteen Propositions.
- (8) Period of Civil War.
  - (a) Character of combatants.
  - (b) Second year of war.
  - (c) Alliance with Scotland.
  - (d) Marston Moor.
  - (e) The rise of Montrose.
  - (f) Establishment of Presbyterianism.
  - (g) Reforms in the army.
  - (h) Naseby.
  - (i) Close of the war.
- (9) Parliament and the New Model.
- (10) Charles delivered to Parliament.
- (11) Increase of troubles.
- (12) Renewal of war.
- (13) Supremacy of Cromwell.
- (14) Execution of Charles.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. What was the first important subject brought to King James' attention and how did he deal with it?
2. Describe the parliamentary difficulties of King James' reign.
3. Explain the question of the Spanish marriage.
4. Explain the origin of the trouble between King Charles and Parliament.
5. Describe the period of personal government.
6. Give a history of the last nine years of King Charles' reign.

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What was the immediate cause of the civil war in the reign of King James I.?
2. What discovery proved fatal to the cause of Charles I.?

## XIII.—THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE RESTORATION, 1649 A. D.—1685 A. D.

## 1. The Commonwealth (pp. 250-256).

- (1) Rump Parliament.
- (2) Troubles in Ireland and Scotland.

"Drogheda" [drog'e-dä]. A seaport of Ireland.

- (3) Dissolution of Parliament.
- (4) Barebone's Parliament.
- (5) Cromwell's foreign policy.

The battle of the Dunes was fought on the sand mounds (dunes) near Dunkirk.

- (6) Military districts.

Colonel Penruddock led an unsuccessful rising in favor of Charles II. He was captured and executed.

- (7) The second Parliament.
- (8) Cromwell's death.
- (9) Richard Cromwell.

## 2. The Restoration (pp. 256-262).

- (1) General Monk.
- (2) Dissolution of the Long Parliament.
- (3) Fall of the Commonwealth.
- (4) Personality of Charles II.
- (5) Attitude of Parliament toward the king.
- (6) The king's chief adviser.
- (7) Measures against non-conformity.
- (8) Alliance with France.
- (9) War with Holland.
- (10) The cabal.
- (11) Question of the succession.

The Rye House Plot received its name from the building, Rye House, in Hertfordshire, in which the conspirators met.

- (12) Death of Charles II.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give a history of the dangers to the government under Cromwell.
2. Give an account of the sessions of Parliament during Cromwell's administration.
3. Give an account of the fall of the Commonwealth.
4. Describe the legislative acts in the reign of Charles II.
5. Explain the origin of the terms Tory and Whig.

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. In what Parliament were the members from Scotland and Ireland first admitted on equal terms with those from England?
2. What kindled the quarrels in the Parliament of 1658?

## "EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

## XVII.—THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

## 1. The Dreibund (p. 190).

- (1) The members.
- (2) Object.
- (3) Character.

## 2. The German Empire (pp. 190-200).

- (1) Constitution.
- (2) Legislative and executive powers.
- (3) Character of the government.
- (4) The army.
- (5) Education and the church.

"Bon voyage" [bon voi-äzh']. A pleasant journey.

- (6) Conflict with the pope.
- (7) The Jewish question.
- (8) Socialism.
- (9) Formation of the alliance.
- (10) Recent factors in German politics.
- (11) The dual alliance.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the composition of the German government.
2. Explain the legislative and executive functions of the government.
3. Explain the relation of the German state and church and tell what questions helped to complicate German politics.
4. Describe the character and purpose of the Triple Alliance.
5. What are the more recent factors in German politics?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What was one of the main points in the agreement made by the members of the Triple Alliance?
2. When Bismarck retired from the chancellorship what honors were conferred upon him?

## PART V.—THE RECONSTRUCTION OF EASTERN EUROPE.

## Preliminary.

## 1. Character of Eastern Europe.

- (1) Compared with the West.
- (2) Turkish rule.

2. The key to political power in Eastern Europe.
3. The Eastern Question.

## XXII.—RUSSIA.

## 1. Geography of Russia (pp. 240-241).

- (1) Area.
- (2) Population.
- (3) Character of the people.

## 2. The national church (pp. 241-244).

- (1) Origin.
- (2) Character of the Oriental Church.
- (3) Characteristic features.
- (4) Schisms and dissenting sects.

## 3. The government (p. 244).

4. The *mir* and the peasants (p. 245).

"Vodka" [vöd'kä]. Russian whisky, distilled usually from rye but sometimes from potatoes.

## 5. The administration of Alexander I. (pp. 245-246).

## 6. The reign of Nicholas (p. 246).

## 7. Russia under Alexander II. (pp. 246-249).

- (1) Serfage.
- (2) Reforms of government.
- (3) Russian liberalism.
- (4) Revolutionary acts.
- (5) Assassination of Alexander.

## 8. Russia since 1881 (pp. 249-250).

- (1) Policy of Nicholas II.
- (2) Condition of peasants.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give geographical facts about Russia.
2. Describe the national church.
3. Describe the government.
4. What governmental reforms have been made during this century?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. When did Russia begin the conquest of Siberia?
2. Where are the most celebrated fairs of Russia held?

## XXIII.—THE EMPIRE OF THE TURKS.

## 1. The character of the Turks (pp. 251-252).

- (1) Race and language.
- (2) Religion.
- (3) Social institutions and political ideas.
- (4) Progress.

## 2. The governmental system (pp. 252-253).

- (1) Character of the government.
- (2) System of taxation.
- (3) Protection to life and property.

"Laveleye" [lāv-lā']. A Belgian writer of works on political economy.

## (4) Public administration.

## 3. The subject races (pp. 254-255).

- (1) Greeks.
- (2) Albanians and Bulgarians.
- (3) Servians and Montenegrins.
- (4) Roumanians.
- (5) Other races.

## 4. Early history of the Balkan peninsula (pp. 255-258).

- (1) Under Roman dominion.
- (2) Arrival of Slavs.
- (3) Bulgarian power.
- (4) The Servian Empire.
- (5) Conquest by the Turks.

## 5. The empire under Solymán.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. In what are the Turks aliens to modern Europe?
2. Describe the Turkish administrative system.
3. What races are subject to Turkish rule?
4. Give a *résumé* of the early history of the Balkan peninsula.

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. In Turkish civil and political matters who is the chief executive officer under the sultan?

2. Who advises the sultan in religious and legal matters and by what is he guided?

## XXIV.—THE EXPULSION OF THE TURKS FROM EUROPE.

## 1. Decline of Turkish power (p. 259).

## 2. Hungarian independence (p. 259).

## 3. Affairs in Greece (pp. 260-263).

- (1) Oppressions.
- (2) Revival of learning and commerce.
- (3) Insurrections and massacres.
- (4) Attitude of the great powers.
- (5) Nature of Greek government.
- (6) Independence.
- (7) Annexations.

## 4. The Slav states (pp. 263-265).

- (1) Montenegro.
- (2) Roumania.
- (3) Servia.
- (4) Bulgaria.

## 5. The advance of Russia (pp. 265-266).

- (1) Causes.
- (2) The first advance.
- (3) The Greek revolt.
- (4) The obstacle.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give a brief account of the Greek struggle for independence.
2. Tell how the Slav states have won freedom.
3. What are the causes of the strained relations between Russia and Turkey?
4. Describe the progress of the Russian extension of power.

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What English poet aided the Greeks in their struggle for liberty?
2. What demand made by the czar of Russia led to the Crimean War?

## XXV.—THE EASTERN QUESTION.

## 1. Russian policy (p. 268).

## 2. Cause and character of discord between Russia and Turkey (pp. 268-269).

## 3. What the Eastern Question is (pp. 269-270).

## 4. The interests of the powers (pp. 270-272).

- (1) Russia's schemes.
- (2) Austrian interests.
- (3) English interests.
- (4) Complications from 1860 to 1870.

## 5. Outcome of the Herzegovinian revolt (pp. 272-275).

- (1) Turko-Prussian War.
- (2) Treaty of San Stefano.
- (3) The Berlin treaty.

## 6. Trouble between Servia and Bulgaria (pp. 275-276).

7. Governmental *régimes* (pp. 276-278).

- (1) Bulgaria.

- (2) Servia and Roumania.
- (3) Signs of progress.
- 8. The Cretan question (pp. 278-280).
- 9. Solutions of the Eastern Question (pp. 280-281).

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

- 1. Explain the cause of trouble between Russia and Turkey.
- 2. What is meant by the Eastern Question?
- 3. Explain why the different powers are deeply interested in this question.
- 4. Give an outline of the history of the Slav states.
- 5. What are some of the possible solutions of the Eastern Question?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

- 1. What was the Andrassy note?
- 2. After the last Cretan revolution what decision did the powers make in regard to the government of Crete?

## PART VI.—THE MINOR POWERS.

*Preliminary.*

- 1. Medieval European states (p. 283).
- 2. Formation of modern states (p. 283).
- 3. Survivals of medieval conditions (p. 283).
- "Andorra" is in the Pyrenees Mountains.
- "San Marino" is on a spur of the Apennines in Eastern Italy, in latitude about 43°.
- 4. Decadent powers (p. 283).

## XXVI.—THE SMALL CENTRAL STATES.

- 1. History of Switzerland (pp. 284-287).
  - (1) Early period.
  - (2) Series of constitutions.
  - (3) Causes of discord.
  - (4) Constitution of 1848.
  - (5) The referendum.
  - (6) Races.
- "Romansch." The people of Southeastern Switzerland and in the districts north of the Adriatic speaking the Romansch language, one of the Romance group of languages.
  - (7) Education.
  - (8) Character of the people.
- 2. History of the Netherlands (pp. 287-290).
  - (1) Physical features of the country.
  - (2) Two characteristic facts.
  - (3) In the French Revolution.
  - (4) Union with Belgium.
  - (5) Independence.
  - (6) Form of government.
  - (7) Characteristics of the people.
- 3. Belgium (pp. 290-291).
  - (1) Events in 1830.
  - (2) The government and people.
  - (3) The king.
  - (4) Suffrage laws.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

- 1. Give an outline of historical events in Switzerland previous to 1848.
- 2. Describe the Swiss government.
- 3. Describe the physical features of the Netherlands.
- 4. Recount facts which show the character of the Dutch people.
- 5. Relate important facts concerning the Belgian government and laws.

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

- 1. In what is the legislative power of the Netherlands vested?
- 2. What international conference began its sessions in Brussels, August 7, 1897, and what countries were represented?

## XXVII.—NORTHMEN AND SOUTHERNS.

- 1. Influence of geographical position on historical events (pp. 293-294).
  - (1) In Central Europe.
  - (2) In the Iberian peninsula.
  - (3) In the Scandinavian peninsula.
- 2. The northern and southern peninsulas contrasted (pp. 294-296).
  - (1) In race and population.
  - (2) In religion.
  - (3) In education.
- 3. Scandinavian history (pp. 296-298).
  - (1) Territory in 1800.
  - (2) Denmark and Sweden in the French wars.
  - (3) Peace of Kiel.
  - (4) Independence of Norway.
  - (5) Politics in Norway.
- "Storthing" [stör'ting].
- (6) Government.
- 4. The southern peninsula (pp. 299-304).
  - (1) Spain at the opening of this century.
  - (2) Constitution of 1812.
  - (3) Reaction.
  - (4) Insurrection of 1820.
  - (5) Four decades from 1820 to 1860.
  - (6) Cause of Franco-Prussian War.
- "Serrano" [ser-rä'nō].
- "Prim" [prēm].
- "Topete" [tō-pā'tā].
- (7) Spain since 1870.
- "Amadeo" [ä-mä-dä'ō].
- (8) Affairs in Portugal.
- (9) Decadence of the states.
- (10) Characteristics of Spaniards.
- "Narvaez" [nä-rvä-äth'].
  - (11) Colonial possessions.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS.

- 1. Explain how historical events are related to geographical position.
- 2. Contrast the Scandinavian countries with Spain and Portugal.



3. Give an outline of Norwegian history since 1814 and describe the Scandinavian government.

4. Describe the revolutionary movements in Spain during this century.

5. What are the chief Spanish characteristics?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is the name of the Danish Parliament?

2. When was obligatory military service introduced into Portugal?

#### PART VII.—TO-DAY.

##### *Preliminary.*

1. Nature of social and political problems (p. 305).

2. Physical achievements (p. 305).

3. Altered conditions of life (p. 305).

#### XXVIII.—PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

1. General survey of the material progress in this century (p. 307).

2. The world's transformers (p. 307).

3. History of cotton and cotton manufacture (pp. 307-311).

(1) Introduction into Europe.

(2) First processes in cotton manufacture.

(3) Inventions and the result.

(4) Bleaching process.

"Berthollet" [ber-to-lā].

(5) Printing calico.

(6) Increase of cotton supply.

(7) Center of manufacture.

4. Importance of the iron and coal industries (pp. 311-314).

(1) Extensive use of iron.

(2) First cause of a great impetus to iron manufacture.

(3) Inventions and their influence.

(4) Production of steel.

(5) Value of steam machinery.

5. Improvement in methods of transportation (pp. 314-315).

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. By what is the material progress of the century represented?

2. Describe the progress of cotton manufacture since its introduction into England.

3. By what has the utility of iron and coal been extended?

4. Show the progress in the methods of transportation.

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. When was the first turnpike road established by law in England?

2. Where was the first macadamized road constructed?

#### XXIX.—PROGRESS OF THE WORLD (*continued*).

1. Development of the steamboat and steam railways (pp. 316-319).

2. Growth and importance of the telegraph system (pp. 319-320).

3. Effect of the Suez Canal on commerce (p. 321).

4. Improvement in steel manufacture (pp. 321-322).

5. Interdependence of inventions (p. 322).

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Give an account of the introduction of the locomotive and the steamboat.

2. Describe the progress made in methods of communication and show its effect on commerce and transportation.

3. Explain the commercial importance of the Suez Canal.

4. What is the cause of the rapid improvements in machinery?

5. Show how the great inventions are interdependent.

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. By whom was the Suez Canal projected?

2. What is its length and how long did it take to complete it?

#### XXX.—QUESTIONS OF THE DAY.

1. The military situation (pp. 324-327).

(1) The Prussian system.

(2) The armament of other powers.

(3) Improved weapons.

(4) Two danger-points.

(a) Alsace-Lorraine.

(b) Constantinople.

2. Socialism (pp. 327-329).

(1) Various theories.

(2) State socialism.

(3) Anarchism.

(4) One cause of its ready acceptance.

3. Extension of universal suffrage (pp. 329-330).

4. Modification of feudal land tenures (pp. 330-331).

5. The twofold character of the principle of nationality (pp. 331-332).

6. The religious question (pp. 332-333).

"*Imperium in imperio*." An empire within an empire.

7. General survey of European progress (p. 333).

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the two great dangers in international politics.

2. Describe the present socialistic tendency in European countries.

3. Among what classes are socialistic theories readily accepted, and why?

4. What is the result of the democratic tendency in modern states?

5. Illustrate the unifying and the disruptive force of the principle of nationality.

#### SEARCH QUESTION.

1. When was it demonstrated that France and Russia had entered into an alliance?

## REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

## I.—"THE IMMENSITY OF LONDON."

1. Panorama of London (pp. 219-220).
2. Municipal affairs (pp. 220-226).
  - (1) The governing bodies.
  - (2) Government of the city of London.
  - (3) Election, constitution, and duties of the County Council.
- "*In locus parentis.*" In place of a parent.
  - (4) The vestries and district boards.
  - (5) Asylum and school boards.
  - (6) The drainage system.
  - (7) The streets.
  - (8) The parks.
3. Establishment of clubs.
4. London's wealth and poverty.

## II.—"TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES."

1. Conditions sixty years ago (p. 227).
2. Present conditions (p. 228).
3. Effect on the individual and on business (pp. 228-229).
4. Extension of the telephonic field (p. 229).
5. Progress of the telegraph (pp. 229-230).
6. General benefits of the telephone and the telegraph (pp. 230-231).

## III.—"SIR ROBERT PEEL."

1. Peel's influence on Gladstone (p. 231).
2. Teacher and pupil representatives of the present type of English statesmen (p. 231).
3. Early training (pp. 231-232).
4. The great figures in Parliament in 1809 (p. 232).
5. Traits of character (pp. 232-233).
6. Reputation as an administrator (p. 233).
7. Source of his reputation as a statesman (p. 233).
8. Attitude toward the Reform Bill of 1832 (p. 233).
9. The new sovereign (p. 233).
10. Peel called to the premiership (p. 234).
11. Second premiership (p. 234).
12. Repeal of the corn laws (p. 234).
13. Peel as a parliamentary leader (p. 234).
14. The statesman's personality (p. 235).
15. The Prince Consort's opinion of Peel (p. 235).

## IV.—"THE HUMAN LIFE OF GOD."

1. Disappearance of Christ's manhood (pp. 235-236).
  - (1) Examples of false Christology.
  - (2) A twofold consciousness.
- "Theanthropic." Embodying the divine and the human.
  - (3) Character of his manhood.

## (4) Loss of Christ's humanity.

- "Logos." In theology, the Divine word; the Second Person in the Trinity before and after Incarnation.
2. Longing for a human Savior (p. 236).
  3. Mariolatry (pp. 236-237).
  - "Peter Lombard." An Italian theologian of the twelfth century. Thomas Aquinas lived a century later.
  4. The search for Christ (p. 237).
  - "Peter Waldo." A French reformer of the twelfth century.
  5. Christ of the New Testament (pp. 237-238).
  6. Christ's self-renunciation and self-limitation (pp. 238-239).
  7. What the Epistle to the Hebrews teaches (p. 239).

## V.—"THE CENTRAL ELEMENT OF ORGANIZED MATTER."

1. A chemist's interest in a new discovery (p. 239).
2. Importance of carbon (pp. 239-240).
3. Various forms of the same element (p. 240).
4. Principal form of carbon in nature (p. 240).
5. Diffusion of carbon (p. 240).
6. Compounds of carbon (p. 240).
- "Wöhler" [vê'ler]. A German chemist.
7. Temperature in chemical reaction (p. 241).
8. Non-gaseous character of carbon (p. 241).
9. Carbon combined with hydrogen (p. 241).
10. The homologous series (pp. 241-242).
11. Facts derived from the study of these compounds (p. 242-243).

## VI.—"FACTORY LIFE AND LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND."

1. Necessity of studying industrial codes (p. 243).
2. Work of early legislators (pp. 243-244).
3. Distinction between a factory and a workshop (p. 244).
4. Employees in factories and workshops (p. 244).
5. Protection for factory workers (pp. 244-245).
6. Regulation for unhealthy and dangerous industries (p. 245).
7. Investigation concerning the needs of factory women and girls (p. 245).
8. General conditions required in any factory (p. 246).
9. Reports of women factory inspectors (pp. 246-247).
10. Record of accidents (p. 247).
11. Limitation of factory and workshop hours (pp. 247-248).
12. The beginning of factory legislation (p. 248).

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR NOVEMBER.

## "TWENTY CENTURIES OF ENGLISH HISTORY."

## VI.

1. "Traitor! traitor!" "Were I a knight my sword should answer that foul taunt." 2. The Privy Council.

## VII.

1. English Justinian; by governmental, judicial, and financial reforms. 2. The abbey church of Westminster.

## VIII.

1. The English Channel ports, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich; Cinque Ports. 2. An earthquake; Council of the Earthquakes.

## IX.

1. In 1426; because the barons' retainers appeared in Parliament carrying clubs on their shoulders. 2. It checked the progress of freedom for nearly a century.

## "EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

## IX.

1. Ban. 2. Palacky [pă-lăts'kē].

## X.

1. Napoleon; in Italy. 2. Austria, Russia, Prussia, France, and England; affairs in the kingdom of Naples.

## XI.

1. To Oporto. 2. Lamartine.

## XII.

1. Balaklava. 2. Polish nationality was destroyed and the country divided into ten governments under Russian administration.

## XIII.

1. Battle of Königrätz. 2. In a conference of plenipotentiaries from the different governments; to an assembly chosen by universal suffrage, which held its meetings in Berlin in 1867.

## XIV.

1. Solferino. 2. Garibaldi; hunters of the Alps.

## XV.

1. Debreczin. 2. Kossuth.

## XVI.

1. A majority of one. 2. Nineteen.

## THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1902.

## CLASS OF 1899—"THE PATRIOTS."

## "Fidelity, Fraternity."

## OFFICERS.

*President*—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

*Vice Presidents*—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Rev. Cyrus B. Hatch, Pa.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlisle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Hawthorth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

*Secretary*—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

*Treasurer*—John C. Whitford, Detroit, Mich.

*Trustee*—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

"It is the reserve corps of an army which enables the leader to strike the decisive blow when the critical moment arrives. It is the heavy balance wheel of an engine which distributes the power equally and insures that steadiness of motion which prevents destructive shocks, overcoming resistance that would stop the piston unaided by the stored-up momentum. It is the knowledge, experience, and character, the mental and moral wealth, which you have accumulated during your whole life that measure your real power and influence to-day."

A CLASSMATE writes: "I am sorry to be so late

in sending memoranda, but I have not been able to complete it before this. I have received my books for '98-'99 and as I find them even more interesting than any which have come before, I should be almost sorry to graduate if I did not intend to keep up some of the special courses after graduation."

A FEW words from graduates of '98 will be interesting to members of '99 who are so soon to pass through a similar experience. "I have received the C. L. S. C. diploma and am much pleased. As I am now in my fifty-sixth year, and this is the first diploma I have ever received, it seems to me a matter of much interest that I have completed the course. My life has been varied and large, and I have mixed much with people, but my education has had to come by bits. This diploma is one of many bits."

ANOTHER graduate writes: "It has been a source of interest and benefit to me, although I have had to read on the train and burn the midnight gas to finish the course. It has left me a strong incentive for further reading and I wish for the movement thousands of additional readers."

It is not too early for members of the Patriot Class to begin planning for the graduation. A great rally is expected at Chautauqua in '99 and those who cannot go to Chautauqua will, if possible, visit some local Chautauqua.

### CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

*"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."*

*"Licht, Liebe, Leben."*

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

*Vice Presidents*—Rev. John A. McKamy, Nashville, Tenn.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, N. Tonawanda, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Greene, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. Mary H. Gardner, Kansas City, Mo.; Mrs. James H. Bentley, Ridley Park, Pa.

*Secretary and Treasurer*—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Younglove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

*Trustee*—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

CLASS COLOR—GRAY.

THE Class of 1900 are, as usual, very much alive in all class plans. The secretary reports the receipt of a letter from a classmate in Savannah, Ga., who asks to be put down for five dollars toward the furnishing of the class building, with more to come if needed. Each member of the Arbor Vitæ Circle of Cohoes, N. Y., is pledged to add fifty cents to the class treasury as the result of some special piece of work which is to enable them to earn the desired amount. In fact, this plan seems to have great possibilities for the class at large and we doubt not that next summer will bring an interesting array of "experiences" as members from near and from far send their contributions for the good cause.

THE subject of a pin for the Class of 1900 is under discussion by a committee appointed for this purpose and further developments will be awaited with interest.

ONE of the greatest difficulties which most active C. L. S. C. members encounter is the demand for ceaseless activity. Often self-imposed tasks rob us of our best chance for growth. Often the real duty is made more taxing than it need be or than is wise. Perhaps the following word to the wise from Hamerton's "Intellectual Life" will help some of us to a truer standard of life. "You are living a great deal too much like a star, and not enough like a human being. You do not hasten often, but you never rest, except when nature mercifully prostrates you in irresistible sleep. Like the stars and the sea in Matthew Arnold's poem, 'Self Dependence,' you do not ask surrounding things to yield you love, amusement, sympathy. The stars and the sea can do without these refreshments of the brain and heart, but you cannot. Rest is necessary to recruit your intellectual forces. . . . Let your rest be perfect in its season, like the rest of waters that are still. If you will have a model for your living take neither the stars, for they fly without ceasing, nor the ocean that ebbs and flows, but rather let your life be like that of the summer air, which has times of noble energy and times of perfect peace."

### CLASS OF 1901.—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

*"Light, Love, Life."*

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

*Vice Presidents*—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn.; Rev. George S. Duncan, Washington, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York, N. Y.; Mrs. Samuel George, Wellsville, W. Va.; Dr. Eliza Mosher, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Mrs. T. S. Coleman, San Antonio, Tex.; Mrs. Miller, Jacksonville, Fla.

*Executive Committees*—Mrs. Ned Arden Flood, Chicago, Ill.; Prof. Henry Cohn, Evanston, Ill.; Mrs. Jamison.

*Secretary and Treasurer*—Miss Harriet E. Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—CORROPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

THE Twentieth Century Class is evidently feeling its responsibility by the way in which reports of the first year of work are coming into the office at Buffalo. The new year opens with new opportunities and every member of the class is reminded of his peculiar privilege, now one year nearer, of graduating in the first year of the new century.

The time is great!

What times are little? To the sentinel

That hour is regal when he mounts on guard.

THAT the readings for '97-'98 have been done by classmates under different conditions, yet with the same purpose, is happily illustrated by the following letters recently received. The first from Missouri: "In my very busy life, I have not found time to fill question blanks, yet I hope to do that later on. The readings were greatly enjoyed; filled a long-felt want of variety to an overburdened brain." The next from Illinois: "Enclosed find money order for the fee of a new member and for grading and returning memoranda, which I enclose. I am sorry to send my papers so late, but I am a farmer's daughter and have been an isolated reader thus far, and have found it difficult to secure time for filling out my memoranda. While I scarcely dare hope for the coveted 'eighty per cent' I do not regret the time and effort expended, for I know that I have gained much more than I should by doing the reading only."

### CLASS OF 1902.—"THE ALTRURIANS."

*"Not for self, but for all."*

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—Dr. John Henry Barrows, Chicago, Ill.

*Vice Presidents*—Col. Geo. W. Bain, Lexington, Ky.; Mr. A. T. Van Laer, New York, N. Y.; Mr. J. T. Robert, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. M. E. Baird, Ohio; Madame Emma D. Rupin, St. Louis, Mo.; Miss Harriet Walker, Wellesley College; Mr. Albert Watson, Mt. Vernon, Ill.; Miss Sallie Leonard, Jackson, Mich.; Miss Jewell Gould, Aspen, Col.; Miss Belle Kearney, Flora, Miss.

*Honorable Vice Presidents*—The Earl and Countess of Aberdeen.

*Secretary*—Mrs. Josephine Griffith Rabb, East Aurora, N. Y.

*Treasurer*—Prof. J. C. Armstrong, 530 Lincoln Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—AMERICAN BEAUTY ROSE.

## TO THE MEMBERS OF 1902:

*Dear Classmates:*—Two months of our first year of study have already slipped away. They find many of us abreast of our work, some a little behind, none, I trust, in the least discouraged, and all intent upon making the most of our four years' journey together. The "English Year" will be an inspiration to us if we read it aright. Let us strive for the wide horizon, the lofty point of view from which we may appreciate the really great things of life and lose sight of what is small and insignificant; so shall we find new courage for the daily duties which mold our characters and a new sense of the worthiness and dignity of this our human life as we struggle toward the divine ideal.

In man's self arise  
August anticipations, symbols, types,  
Of a dim splendor, ever on before  
In that eternal circle life pursues.

Yours in the fellowship of the Class of 1902.

JOHN HENRY BARROWS, President.

We are glad to announce that the name of Miss Belle Kearney of Flora, Miss., has been added to our list of vice-presidents. Miss Kearney spent some time in Chautauqua this summer and as our representative in the far Southland will carry with her the good wishes of the class.

THE Class of 1902, like every other C. L. S. C. class, reaches out into the most isolated parts of this country. Here is a prospective circle in California at Overton, a lumbering town of some five hundred inhabitants, containing a very intelligent population but out of reach of a railroad, their only communication with the outside world being by stage. Truly an ideal place for a circle, where no multiplicity of distractions can weaken their enthusiasm.

We learn from Kansas that it is proposed at Junction City by the Teachers' Reading Course to use Professor Beers' "From Chaucer to Tennyson" as the required book for their current year's work. It is interesting in this connection to note how widely the Chautauqua books enter into the educational work of the country, being by no means confined to the Chautauqua Reading circles. In a large number of colleges, and even in the great universities, Chautauqua books may be found on the shelves of the libraries and in many cases as the required text-book for class work.

UNDER the *Local Circle Department* will be noted a large number of new circles. We give them all hearty greeting. It is pleasant to learn that the number is in excess of the number reported at this time a year ago by the new class.

## GRADUATE CLASSES.

THE Class of '87 was as prominent as ever at the New England Chautauqua Sunday-school Assembly of 1898, its eleventh annual reunion being well attended, and the Pansies shining bright in all C.L.S.C. affairs. The class voted without dissenting voice that each member should, if possible, read some seal course during the year to show maintained interest in the C. L. S. C. and, barring a seal course, to read the regular books for the year. President Louie Erville Ware, who was reelected, was also elected a vice-president of the Society of the Hall in the Grove. At the annual meeting he announced the plan proposed for the Class of '87, and it was heartily approved by the S. H. G. and a number of classes agreed to follow it.

THE many readers of the Vesper Reading Courses of the C. L. S. C. will be glad to note the addition of new courses and a change of plan which will bring these into line with other C. L. S. C. seal courses. Full details will be found in one of the later pages of the magazine.

A NEW course in French history is announced to meet the demand on the part of graduate circles and other organizations for some preparation for the coming Paris Exposition. Even those who do not expect to visit the exposition in person will find France so much "in the air" that a renewal of their acquaintance with French history will not come amiss.

A NEW course in French literature is also among the announcements which will accompany the new edition of the C. L. S. C. Hand-Book, which may be secured by sending a two-cent stamp to John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

MANY graduates are interested in helping to circulate the new Chautauqua booklet, which forms a most attractive little souvenir. A large number of these have been printed and any graduates who are willing to distribute them among persons who may thus be interested in Chautauqua are invited to send to the Buffalo office for as many as they need.

THE *Tribune* Sunshine Society column is under the charge of a C. L. S. C. graduate, Mrs. John C. Martin of New York, and any graduates or others who would like to send words of cheer, suggestions for plans of reading or of work for "shut-ins" will find that such greetings and helps are heartily appreciated. A letter to Mrs. Martin at No. 1 Broadway will bring a response, showing how Chautauquans can, through their C. L. S. C. experience, help this good cause.



## LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God."*

*"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."*

*"Never be Discouraged."*

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.  
BRYANT DAY—November 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.  
MILTON DAY—December 9.  
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.  
LANIER DAY—February 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.  
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.  
ADDISON DAY—May 1.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.  
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.  
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.  
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1898-99.

ALFRED DAY—October 18.  
CAVOUR DAY—November 15.  
CROMWELL DAY—December 16.  
GLADSTONE DAY—January 14.

DRYDEN DAY—February 18.  
WORDSWORTH DAY—March 17.  
SHELLEY DAY—April 20.  
TENNYSON DAY—May 18.

### NEWS FROM THE FIELD.

UNUSUAL activity seems to characterize the Chautauqua circles organizing for the English year. From the Pacific coast office the enrollment of new members the first of October was twice as large as last year. Among the old circles reorganizing are those at Santa Clara, San José, Battle Mountain, and Vallejo. The secretary of the latter circle, in apologizing for the delay in sending her report of the circle in June, says: "You may put it down to over-time, with italics. If you lived in a navy-yard town during the war you would understand that, as nearly every member of the circle worked in the navy-yard, or was connected in some way with the work, it affected us a good deal. From March until the latter part of August the hours of work here were from 8 a. m. until 10 p. m., including Sunday, although Sunday evening was free. You can easily see that there was no time for Chautauqua study. War is no fun for a navy-yard, I can assure you. I handled as many as two hundred and fifty telegrams a day outside of my other clerical work, and the workmen, of course, were laboring as hard as possible in the ships and shops, so we closed the circle in April; hence the scarcity of reports. We will try to do better this year."

THE Brooklyn Chautauqua Union held its opening meeting on the 20th of October in the Central Presbyterian Church. More than one thousand people were present, and the exercises were opened with the Chautauqua Vesper Service, at which Rev. Dr. R. S. Pardington, the former president of the union, presided. An address was also given by Rev. Dr. Carson and one by the Rev. Mr. Isaacs, chaplain of the battle-ship *Massachusetts*. Every one in the audience was supplied with a small flag and, as might be expected, enthusiasm ran high.

Mr. Straley, the president of the union, presented the work of Chautauqua, and this opening rally promises to affect the work of the union favorably throughout the year.

MISS C. A. TEAL, of Brooklyn, who has rendered splendid service to the work in Brooklyn for many years, has been appointed district secretary for the borough of Manhattan. It is hoped that this new departure will result in a decided increase of the work in New York City.

NORTHERN New Jersey, under the leadership of its energetic secretary, Mr. George S. Lincks, is wide-awake as usual. Vesper Services were held in many churches during the month of October and the territory is fully kept alive to Chautauqua interests.

FROM the West the state secretaries are gathering in the results of the summer's activity. Mrs. L. B. Kellogg, the secretary for Kansas, spent some weeks of the summer at a new Assembly at Boulder, Col., where C. L. S. C. exercises were initiated with due ceremony and from which the Chautauqua spirit has been carried far into the Southland, a flourishing circle at Cameron, Texas, being one of the direct results.

MRS. SHIPLEY, state secretary of Iowa, writes of the interest widespread throughout the state, which, in regard to local Chautauqua Assemblies, is one of the most developed of any state in the Union.

SPECIAL attention is being given to the work in the South through the secretary of the Monteagle Assembly, Mr. A. P. Bourland, who is closely in touch with a wide constituency throughout the Southern States, and is, of course, deeply interested in the work of Chautauqua. Through his instrumentality and that also of the very efficient secretary of Tennessee, Miss Sallie C. Battaille, of Nashville, the Chautauqua work at Monteagle is in

a most flourishing condition and a new C. L. S. C. office is to be built by another year.

FOREIGN countries are contributing their share to the enrollment of the new class, one of the latest recruits being Count Teleki, of Budapest, Hungary, who has become interested in Chautauqua work through the report of the United States Bureau of Education.

#### NEW CIRCLES.

CANADA.—A competent organizer has been at work in Fort Coulonge, Quebec, and as a result sends the names of ten ladies who are ready to take up the course.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—A trio of readers at Hudson Center have sent in their fees for the year.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The newly organized circle at Brockton have chosen the first and third Mondays of the month for the meetings and have secured the Central Methodist Church as a place of meeting. They have thirteen names now on the roll, and the energetic efforts of Rev. Kaufman will doubtless secure more.—New names are being added to the already large circle at Gloucester, and with a good management and an interested company a successful year is assured.—The Current History Short Course is receiving the attention of eleven ladies and gentlemen at Turner's Falls.

CONNECTICUT.—An organization of the C. L. S. C. has been effected in Sheffordville, five new members and one graduate making up the class.—There is a strong C. L. S. C. spirit among the ten new members at Wallingford.

NEW YORK.—The systematic study arranged for the C. L. S. C. appeals to the people of Watertown, where ten industrious people will carry out the plan of work.—The Class of 1902 welcomes a goodly number of newly enlisted readers from Dannemora.—Unionville and Erieville report organizations of the C. L. S. C. just completed.

NEW JERSEY.—The Current History Short Course, just the one for busy housekeepers, is to receive a trial for a half dozen ladies in Mount Holly.—A dozen enrollments for 1902 come from the new circle at Woodbury.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A fully officered circle of ten members has entered the ranks at Milton.—Girardville is the home of fourteen registered and three associate members.—Four membership fees are received from Philadelphia.—A company of eight at Allentown have started on the course with a determination which will carry them through the work of the four years.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Well-equipped circles are reported from Walterboro and Chester.

OHIO.—The literary department of the Epworth League of the Franklin Avenue M. E. Church, Cleveland, is meeting with good success in organ-

izing a C. L. S. C. for 1902.—The secretary of the new class in Youngstown writes: "We are progressing nicely, at present having a membership of about fifteen, with the prospect of having a large circle. We meet every Tuesday evening, from 8:00 to 9:30, at the home of Rev. George Anderson, pastor of the First Christian Church, who is the organizer."—A favorable beginning is made by the newly initiated readers at Rocky River.—The Home Circle of Troy is limited to twenty-two, the number now reached, all married and about the same age. There are lawyers, doctors, teachers, and other professional people in the organization.

ILLINOIS.—An organization of the C. L. S. C. in Chicago at first limited its number to twenty-four, but was obliged to open its doors to an unlimited number on account of the demand for the work. A successful year is expected.—A trio of readers report from Galesburg.

MICHIGAN.—A Juvenile Reading Circle in Big Rapids, which has read the course for four years, is ready to join with the C. L. S. C.'s in their study of the English course.

MINNESOTA.—A band of intellectual people in Minneapolis, who have read the course in part but dropped it in 1895, have decided to revive the circle and will make an effort to arouse Chautauqua enthusiasm among their friends.—A great deal of interest has been displayed among the eleven determined members at Blooming Prairie.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—In the Indian school at Pine Ridge a circle has been organized among the white and Indian employees.

MONTANA.—A member of the Class of '84 has begun the organization of a class at Fort Shaw.

WASHINGTON.—From Spokane comes a report containing fourteen names.—Seattle also reports a first-class organization.

#### OLD CIRCLES.

WEST INDIES.—A letter from Jamaica shows the second year of the circle there as well begun, with a constantly awakening interest.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Keep Pace Circle at Waltham and West Newton still holds its own as a loyal and energetic organization.—Three ladies from Hull will be among the graduates in '99.

NEW YORK.—One of the oldest and most prosperous organizations of the C. L. S. C. is the Syracuse Alumni Association. Their first meeting for this year was held in October, when officers were elected and a place of meeting agreed upon, the rooms of the Woman's Christian Association.—A circle of from twelve to twenty-five members, in Little Falls, has been doing excellent work for several years. They sent Miss Lula Miller as a delegate to Chautauqua this summer and at a special meeting, held recently, she read her report.

This paper was well written and delightfully entertaining, describing the public buildings, the streets, the entertainments, the C. L. S. C. meetings and class buildings, and everything which interests the Chautauqua visitor. We regret that lack of space prevents the publication of this excellent report.—The following is from the circle at Ithaca: "Our circle 'The Forest City Circle,' is composed of six members, all of whom are women. At first we held our meetings each week in the parlors of the Y. M. C. A., but later it was found more convenient to meet at the homes of the members. This proved to be much pleasanter and more enjoyable to all. The credit system has proved of great interest, that being the only way we, as a circle, had of raising money. Each time a member was absent a fine of one cent was required. Our treasury now has the sum of sixty-five cents, after having held thirty-four meetings, so you see the circle has been very well attended. Our last regular meeting was held on Tuesday evening, May 24, at Mrs. Moler's, No. 106 University Avenue. The meeting was opened at 8 p. m. We had very interesting pictures, brought from Germany by Miss Nellie Reed, which were greatly enjoyed by all. 'Shepp's Photographs of the World' and 'The Cathedral Churches of England and Wales' (loaned to us from the Cornell University library) were in the circle to be consulted. A paper on Melrose Abbey was read by Mrs. Moler and 'The Prisoner of Chillon' was given by Mrs. Robert McClenathen. We expect to reorganize in the fall of '98 and hope to add more members to our circle."

PENNSYLVANIA.—The proficient secretary of Merion Square Circle, Gladwyne, says concerning their work: "The interest that was at first manifested in our circle still continues unabated. We have enjoyed the course very much, and have, when possible, followed the program in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Each member has always been willing to help when asked. We are looking forward to the coming autumn, when we will begin our next course with pleasant anticipations."—"Liberty and Law" is the motto of the Lafayettes at Uniontown. They belong to the Class of 1900 and, although not so strong in numbers as formerly, they are doing better work.—The *County Journal* of Coudersport reports the closing reception of the Alleghenians as one of which the circle should well be proud. The graduating class numbered twenty-two, and the alumni were their guests. The home of Mrs. Mary Larrabee was opened for the occasion, and "on entering the parlors the impression was that Uncle Sam had been robbed of all his stars and stripes for this occasion." Long tables were arranged through the center of the parlors for the

graduates and smaller tables were grouped around them for the guests. When the others were seated, the graduates marched in to their places and all were served with ice cream and cake. The places at table were marked by name cards, and with these were programs, to each of which was tied the class flower, the violet. The toasts were excellent and the class poem was a most pleasing feature.

#### NEW ENGLAND ASSEMBLY.

The New England Assembly was held at Montwait, Mass., from July 18 to 29, and was most successful. Dr. Dunning as leader of instruction was very acceptable. His teaching awakened thought, prompted questions, and was thoroughly enjoyed.

The lecture platform was well sustained. Rev. Russell Conwell, D.D., Rev. George C. Larimer, D.D., Rev. Egerton R. Young, D.D., Rev. Roland D. Grant, D.D., Commander Booth-Tucker, and Leland T. Powers were among those who provided entertainment, profit, and pleasure.

The Recognition Day exercises were prepared with much enthusiasm by the members of the class who were present, but a pouring rain prevented the full program. Still every one listened with great pleasure to the eloquent words of Rev. Robert S. MacArthur, D.D., and all were well repaid for their efforts in decorations, etc., by the enthusiasm of all C. L. S. C.'s. Dr. Dunning presented the diplomas. In the evening a large banquet was held, where songs and speeches, wise, witty, and grave, were enjoyed, a fitting supplement to Recognition Day.

The music of the Assembly was led by Prof. Charles E. Boyd, assisted by a quartet, pianist, and large chorus. Under this leader many delightful concerts were enjoyed. The Assembly was also entertained each day by music from Marcksnick's Instrumental Concert Company of Boston. They were untiring in their efforts to please.

Prof. George W. Pease was instructor in the Sunday-school Normal Department, Prof. George J. D. Currie in physical culture, elocution, and primary Sunday-school, Miss Ada Kinsman in intermediate Sunday-school work, and Mr. Alfred Noan in temperance.

The program was well carried out, the managers carefully attending to every detail, and securing satisfactory comfort and pleasure to the large assembly.

The C. L. S. C. work was a pronounced success. More than three times as many joined the Class of 1902 as were enrolled the year before, and many old Chautauquans resolved to study for seals. The Class of 1902 has many choice students in its ranks, and the outlook for the C. L. S. C. in New England is promising.

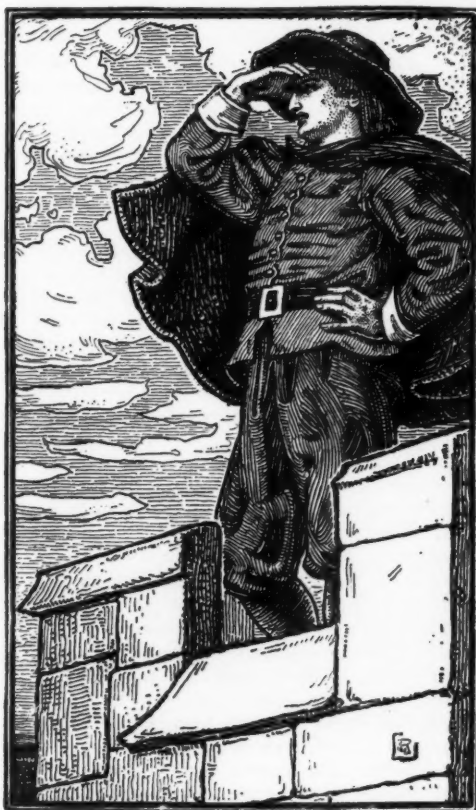
## TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

AS the holiday season approaches the various publishing houses of the country are sending out many handsome volumes which the Christmas shopper will hail with delight. There are books of every description, from the dainty, inexpensive booklet to the large magnificent work representing the efforts of the famous author and artist. This department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN aims to give its readers a comprehensive survey of what author, artist, and publisher are doing to promote the cause of universal education and culture.

none excel in beauty and nicety of execution the one which has just come from the De Vinne Press. It is elaborately illustrated by the well-known artists G. Woolliscroft Rhead and Frederick Rhead of England, and Louis Rhead of America, and the numerous small pictures scattered through the text, as well as the full-page illustrations, are artistic and sympathetic interpretations of Bunyan's work. The text and illustrations are done in sepia, and each page bears a handsome decorative border in green and white, into the design of which floral forms have been skilfully wrought. The typography is also of the best, and the readers of this great allegory will take great delight in the rich color effects, the graceful designs, and the mechanical work, which are effective and sumptuous.

The hurtfulness of misdirected charity is the central thought of Henry Seton Merriman's new novel, "Roden's Corner."\* A fashionable set of London become the ready dupes of a designing business man and chemist and, in the belief that they are relieving the malgamite workers by establishing them in works where malgamite is made by a harmless process, furnish the means to effect a gigantic combination in the industry. As a result a panic in the paper trade is precipitated and the directors of the charity learn at length that the promoters of the enterprise, Roden and Von Holzen, are reaping enormous profits from a process of manufacture more deadly than the one in use before the charity was organized. Tony Cornish, one of the directors, rises to the emergency and after a struggle, in which he is handicapped by being in love with Roden's sister, succeeds in making an end of the business. He is aided in this by the opportune drowning of Von Holzen, who accidentally plunges into the canal while attempting to murder Cornish. The story has life and action and considerable philosophy of life expressed in epigrammatic sentences.

The reputation won by Messrs. L. Prang & Co. as publishers of a high grade of art productions is fully sustained by this year's output of souvenirs for the holiday season. The list of their publications contains dainty booklets, beautiful cards, and elegant calendars ornamented with exquisite designs in which



From Bunyan's  
"The Pilgrim's Progress."

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The Century Co.

VIEWING THE DELECTABLE MOUNTAINS.

Of the many editions of "The Pilgrim's Progress"\*

\* The Pilgrim's Progress. By John Bunyan. Illustrated by the Brothers Rhead. Trade Edition, \$1.50. *Edition de Luxe*, \$5.00. New York: The Century Company.

\* Roden's Corner. By Henry Seton Merriman. With illustrations by T. de Thulstrup. 324 pp. \$1.75. New York: Harper & Brothers.



From Andrew Lang's  
"The Arabian Nights."

Copyright, 1898, by  
Longmans, Green, & Co.

ALNASCHAR KICKS OVER THE BASKET.

graceful floral forms and charming figures are artistically combined. Bright verses and appropriate sentiments grace these handsome productions, whose excellence is unsurpassed, and the most refined taste will be pleased with the delicate coloring as well as the general utility of these art productions.\* The designing, the chromo-lithographic work, and the printing are products of American art, and they show a wonderful progress in this branch of artistic ornamentation.

In the third series of "The World Beautiful,"† by Lilian Whiting, the relation of the "world of the unseen" with that of the seen as revealed by psychic research is the subject discussed. These two worlds, she says, so interpenetrate each other that it is possible for the inhabitants of the latter to communicate with those of the former. But before this is possible the dweller in the "seen realm" must attain by an evolutionary process a certain spiritual condition, which depends on his own nature and on his constant "adherence to the higher needs of the spirit," that is, the supremacy of the spiritual over the physical. The possibility of communicating with spirits of the unseen realm is illustrated by many interesting examples of the working of the planchette, taken from Miss Kate Field's record of experiments. She further states that this power to communicate with the unseen realm, a power pro-

ductive no doubt of much happiness, is not the only result of a high degree of spirituality; it enables one to rise above the sordid cares and petty meannesses of this world and to live the ideal higher life, in which state the spiritual laws, the laws governing the unseen realm, are easily understood. Though every reader cannot subscribe to all that the author has to say, he will find in these pages many beautiful and inspiring thoughts expressed in a bright, attractive manner, and he will be the better for having read them.

Mr. Andrew Lang has made a valuable addition to his long list of delightful books for children in a carefully selected and edited compilation of "The Arabian Nights Entertainments."‡ Only the best of the stories appear, translated from the admirable French version of M. Galland,

and in all cases the portions which made the original book unfitted for young readers have been eliminated. The illustrative work has been admirably done by Mr. H. J. Ford, and the covers are very tastefully and attractively gotten up in blue and gold. The book cannot fail to awaken as much pleasure in the child-heart as its Fairy Book predecessors, and children of a larger growth, who, with Mr. Lang, read the wonderful stories "in dirty old volumes of small type with no pictures," will recognize the service he has rendered the present generation of little people.

Mr. George Laurence Gomme is to be congratulated upon the conception and successful execution of a new idea in books for young readers. In "The King's Story Book"† he has presented thirty-six selections from English romantic literature illustrative of events in the reigns of English monarchs from Harold to William IV., such masters as Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, Kingsley, and even Shakespeare being represented. "The Queen's Story Book" contains twenty-eight similar selections, illustrating as many reigns from the Conquest to Victoria, the central figure in a majority of them being a woman. These selections have been chosen with great skill and changed but slightly to form complete stories. While the author's primary

\* Prang's Sumptuous Calendars, Art Books, and Christmas Cards. Prices from 5 cents to \$3.00. Boston and Springfield: Taber-Prang Art Company.

† The World Beautiful. Third Series. By Lilian Whiting. 245 pp. \$1.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

‡ The Arabian Nights Entertainments. Selected and edited by Andrew Lang. Illustrated. 424 pp. \$2.00.—† The King's Story Book. Edited with an introduction by George Laurence Gomme. Illustrated by Harrison Miller. 327 pp. \$2.00.—The Queen's Story Book. Edited with an introduction by George Laurence Gomme. Illustrated by W. H. Robinson. 446 pp. \$2.00. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.



object is to amuse, he has maintained a high standard of excellence both in his choice of stories and the form of their narration. The idea is an admirable one, accomplishing three important objects: furnishing good, wholesome reading, inculcating a love for history, and introducing the young mind to the best forms of literature. Both volumes are attractively bound and illustrated and will make very appropriate holiday gifts.

No one knows better the inmost thoughts and feelings of the soldier than his chaplain, and long service in that capacity during the Civil War has enabled H. Clay Trumbull to write understandingly and sympathetically of the most tender and sacred side of soldier life. In his "War Memories of an Army Chaplain" he affectionately portrays the real soldier, his patience and cheerfulness, his bravery and loyalty, his thoughtfulness for his comrades, and withal his tender yearning for the loved ones at home. As a friend and counselor

quainted with many officers of both the army and navy, of whom he has many anecdotes to relate. After the close of the war he enjoyed the friendship of General Grant, and one of the best chapters of the book is devoted to glimpses of the hero of the Civil War. The book is tastefully bound in cadet blue cloth and illustrated with hand-finished half-tone engravings and photogravure frontispiece.

The lover of the esthetic in book-making will find his taste gratified in the holiday edition of "Fishin' Jimmy,"\* just published by the Scribners'. Annie Trumbull Slosson's touching story of the New England fisherman has been given a charming setting. Printed in old style type on antique deckle-edge paper, with wide margins, gilt top, six full-page photogravures on embossed panels, and eleven smaller photogravures, and bound in dark green satin-finish cloth with white back and gilt trimmings it is evident that the book-maker's art could go little farther. The illustrations are by



From H. Clay Trumbull's  
"War Memories of an Army Chaplain."

Copyright, 1898, by  
Charles Scribner's Sons.

"THE FIRING PARTY TOOK POSITION IN FRONT OF HIM A DOZEN PAGES DISTANT."

Chaplain Trumbull was with his men in camp, on the battlefield, in the hospital, and in prison, and his varied experiences are told with many touches of humor and pathos. He was personally ac-

Alice Barber Stephens, and all in all a more alluring book is hard to be imagined.

Another delightful nature book by Mabel Osgood Wright has been issued in readiness for the holiday

\* War Memories of an Army Chaplain. By H. Clay Trumbull. 421 pp. \$2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. I—Dec.

\* Fishin' Jimmy. By Annie Trumbull Slosson. Illustrated. 66 pp. \$3.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

season. It is safe to say that no other writer presents the subject of bird and animal life more attractively and intelligently than Mrs. Wright, and "Four-footed Americans and Their Kin"\* is sure of a large and loving public. The facts about our common animals and their wild relations which are woven into the charming stories are just what every American child should know, and they can never learn them in more entertaining fashion. A valuable feature of the book is the beautiful illustrations by Ernest Seton Thompson, representing about seventy-five varieties of "four-footed Americans."

An attractive addition has been made to the literature on the Philippine Islands by Dean C. Worcester, assistant professor of zoology in the University of Michigan, who in 1887 accompanied a party of zoologists to the Philippines and visited fifteen of the islands during the eleven months of his stay. In 1890 Professor Worcester, with Dr. Frank S. Bourns, who is now on Commander Dewey's staff, returned to the islands, remaining nearly three years and including twenty of the islands in their explorations. It is mainly the experiences of this trip that Professor Worcester recounts in a simple style, and his descriptions of the islands



From S. Weir Mitchell's  
"The Adventures of François."

Copyright, 1898, by  
The Century Co.

FRANÇOIS AND TOTO IN THE LUXEMBOURG.



From Mabel Osgood Wright's  
"Four-footed Americans and Their Kin."

STRIPED SPERMOPHILE.

\*Four-footed Americans and Their Kin. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Edited by Frank M. Chapman. Illustrated by Ernest Seton Thompson. 432 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Copyright, 1898, by  
The Macmillan Company.

\*The Philippine Islands and Their People. By Dean C. Worcester. Illustrated. 529 pp. \$4.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

and the people inhabiting them are extremely interesting. The first chapter consists of a brief history of the country, and an appendix contains succinct information about its natural resources. Numerous photographs of typical scenes and groups are scattered through the book, and an excellent map and exhaustive index add to the value of the volume.\*

The skill of the literary artist is as discernible in the recent product of Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's pen as in "Hugh Wynne." From the revolutionary period of American history the author has turned to the most stormy era in the national development of France, sketching in delicate yet distinct lines the social turbulence of the time. The adventures of a unique character form the background of the picture,

and around him are grouped several prominent historical figures of the period and other characters whose acts are in harmony with the spirit of the time. This central figure is François, the foundling, when he is first exhibited in 1777, and a most engaging lad he is, with his perpetual gaiety and odd countenance. But the scene changes and he becomes in succession a thief, one of the gentlemanly sort who never does any violence, a juggler, and a fencing master, and with each change we obtain a glimpse of a new phase of the social disorder. In all of François' adventures—and they are numerous as well as exciting—in and around Paris and in Normandy we are impressed with his sagacity, shrewdness, and perpetual good nature. Though François is the chief actor the other personages are by no means dummies. There are jailers, commissioners, other infamous officials and the nobility, who are equally well portrayed. The character sketching is forceful and vivid, but not more so than the delineation of the events, in which the dramatic element largely enters. Particularly realistic are the prison scene and the episode of the Catacombs. The artist, André Castaigne, has produced effective illustrations for "The Adventures of François."<sup>\*</sup>

The new holiday edition of the well-known story by Lew Wallace, "The Fair God,"<sup>†</sup> just issued from the Riverside Press, is a delight to the eye and very satisfying to the esthetic nature. A mere enumeration of the illustrations—forty full-page photographs, about one hundred and fifty headpieces and rubricated initials, besides numerous tailpieces—gives scarcely an idea of the magnificence of the book. The real value of this department of the work consists not merely in the artistic excellence of the pictures but also in their archeological value.

<sup>\*</sup>The Adventures of François. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. 321 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

<sup>†</sup>The Fair God. A Tale of the Conquest of Mexico. By Lew Wallace. Illustrated by Eric Pape. Two vols. 374+466 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Many of them reproduce the architectural, decorative, sculptural, and ceramic arts and the manners and customs of the period covered by the story, and others represent the thrilling incidents of the Mexican conquest with a verve and force equal to



From Lew Wallace's  
"The Fair God."

Copyright, 1898, by  
Houghton, Mifflin and Co.

"OVER THE BRIDGES THE HORSEMEN GALLOPED."

that of the story itself. It is unusual for an artist to incorporate so much into illustrative work and we are informed that only after a careful and critical study in the museums of America and Mexico and an investigation of the remains of Aztec civilization

at the scenes of the story's action, has the present artist, Eric Pape, been able to accomplish this happy result. Then for the reader's information the significance of the ornamental work in initials, headpieces, and tailpieces is fully explained in the twenty pages occupied by the list of illustrations. In typography, too, the work is all that can be desired, and a fine quality of paper has been used for this edition, which is in two volumes. The story itself, one of the most remarkable historical tales ever written, is too well known to need any comment beyond the fact that its sale has reached nearly 150,000 copies.

"A Child's History of England,"\* by Charles Dickens, is so well known to the reading world that any remarks upon the author's graphic narrative style or the adaptability of the book to the tastes of youthful readers would be superfluous. The distinctive features of the present edition are the character and the number of the illustrations. In a prefatorial note the artist, Mr. Clifton Johnson, explains that he has devoted three summers to the study of the scenes of the historic events delineated by the author and the results as exhibited in the reproductions are all very pleasing and effective. Battlefields, historic buildings, and monuments, in Great Britain, Ireland, and France, as they appear to-day make up the full-page illustrations—nearly fifty in number—and all show the artist's keen appreciation of artistic scenic effects. In mechanical structure this edition is pleasing to the book-lover. The textual part is printed on a good quality of paper, in clear type, and the covers of blue cloth bear an appropriate design.

There is no branch of engineering more important to the development of a new territory than that pertaining to the construction of a railroad, and in the great West particularly the history of the railroad and of the country's development are inseparable. This fact is made strikingly evident in Cy Warman's

"Story of the Railroad,"\* as is also the fact that the railroad pioneers had to fight for every inch of territory they secured. The whole enterprise of railroad construction west of the Mississippi River was a struggle from the start. The organization of a company, the solution of the question of capital, obtaining the right of way, fixing the grade, and the actual work of construction involved difficulties, perils, and tragedies unimagined by the



From Cy Warman's  
"The Story of the Railroad."

THE ENGINEER.

Copyright, 1898, by  
D. Appleton & Company.

traveler who now enjoys the result of the labor. The fights with Indians, wars with rival companies, occasional trouble with the laborers, the methods of land agents, and life in a camp of graders are some of the events which the author has vividly described. This tale, one of the "Stories of the West" series, is full of incident, entertaining, and

\* A Child's History of England. By Charles Dickens. With illustrations and photographs by Clifton Johnson. 415 pp. \$2.50. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Co.

\* The Story of the Railroad. By Cy Warman. Illustrated. 298 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton & Company.



From James D. Richardson's "Messages and Papers of the Presidents." Copyright, 1897, by James D. Richardson.  
ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

historically valuable. The volume contains illustrations which give an idea of the picturesqueness of western scenery as well as the difficulties the engineer had to meet.

By the authority of Congress a publication\* of great historical value has been issued under the editorship of Hon. James D. Richardson, a repre-

sentative of Tennessee. According to a resolution passed by Congress this work contains "all the annual, special, and veto messages, proclamations, and inaugural addresses of the presidents of the United States from 1789 to 1897." The editor has spared no pains to make this an authentic historical work, a careful investigation of the original government records at Washington having been made. The illustrations are engravings from plates owned by the government and they include portraits of the presidents and pictures of the government buildings and copies of celebrated paintings. The first volume of the new edition of this work gives a record of the first four administrations and contains copies of the Constitution of the United States, the Articles of Confederation, and the Declaration of Independence. In general appearance it is an admirable example of what mechanical skill can accomplish in the book-maker's industry.

In the production of a volume called "Turrets, Towers, and Temples," the editor, Esther Singleton, has successfully executed a novel idea, the utility of which is easily discerned. This book is a compilation consisting of selections from the works of famous writers, which describe some of the great masterpieces of architecture. From the writings of English, German, and French authors the compiler

has gathered many literary gems which give an idea both of the author's literary style and the architectural beauty of the structure he describes. The artist has added pictorial reproductions of the buildings, which constitute a very pleasing feature of the volume.\* The handsome covers of green and gold are attractively ornamented.

There is a growing interest in art in this country, particularly in the branch of sacred art which deals with incidents in the life of Christ. The general student has been handicapped by the lack of a short, comprehensive work on the subject, and he will therefore welcome Estelle M. Hurl's book presenting this phase of art history. The author having done editorial work in the revision of Mrs. Jameson's "Sacred and Legendary Art," and having access to great stores of art information not available to the general public, is well prepared to produce a work of this nature. The general plan of



From Esther Singleton's "Turrets, Towers, and Temples."

Copyright, 1898, by Dodd, Mead and Company.

THE DUCAL PALACE.

the book is one which combines simplicity, brevity,

\* A Compilation of the Messages and Papers of the Presidents, 1789-1897. By James D. Richardson. Vol. I. 586 pp. Department L, Washington, D. C.: Ainsworth R. Spofford, General Secretary.

\* Turrets, Towers, and Temples. The Great Buildings of the World, as Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Edited and translated by Esther Singleton. With numerous illustrations. 329 pp. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.



and comprehensiveness. The introduction is a brief historical account of the evolution of Christian art from the simple cycles in the primitive period to the elaborate productions of modern painters, with an enumeration of some of the most important series of representations pertaining to the life of John the Baptist. Then follows the descriptive history of the art productions representing particular incidents in the life of Christ. In treating these subjects the author has wisely followed the chronological order of their occurrence, and after giving the biblical record of the event there follows an account of the beginning and the development of its use as an art subject, opinions as to its adaptability to the purpose, and a brief description of the pictures illustrating it. The writer also gives valuable criticisms and explanations which assist the reader in forming a just and appreciative idea of the artist's work. Almost every subject is illustrated in a text-drawing or a full-page half-tone—in all about a hundred—and some of the best work of famous artists both ancient and modern is represented. A handsome binding, clear type, and an excellent quality of paper are also attractive features of the work.\*

An example of what may be accomplished by an indomitable purpose which overcomes all obstacles may be seen in the works of Francis Parkman.† In spite of ill health he made a careful research of the sources of historical information, and his familiarity with the subject studied, coupled with a brilliant



From Francis Parkman's  
"La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West."  
FATHER HENNEPIN CELEBRATING MASS.

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Little, Brown and Company.

literary style, gives his work a charm rarely excelled. In "Pioneers of France in the New World" there is a vivid picture of the attempts made by the French to colonize Florida and a graphic account of the adventures of Champlain and other French explorers who traveled about in the North. "The Jesuits in North America in the Seventeenth Century" is the second volume of the series, treating of the French influence in America. All the difficulties of these French missionaries, their successes and their failures, and the awful tragedies enacted in the history of New France the author has made intensely realistic. A new library edition of these works has been issued, containing maps, a frontispiece, and a very complete index, and the text used includes the author's latest revisions. The volumes are substantially bound in green cloth.

Greenland, the land of snow and ice, is the coun-

\*The Life of our Lord in Art. With some Account of the Artistic Treatment of the Life of St. John the Baptist. By Estelle M. Hurl, editor of Mrs. Jameson's "Sacred and Legendary Art." 392 pp. \$3.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Co.

†Pioneers of France in the New World. By Francis Parkman. 518 pp. \$2.00.—The Jesuits in North America in the Seventeenth Century. By Francis Parkman. 603 pp. \$2.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

try which Lieutenant Peary made the objective point of his life-work, and since his return from the several exploring expeditions conducted by himself information concerning that northern country has assumed a more positive character. His account\* of its size surprises us and we are more astonished yet to learn that the interior, with the exception of a narrow strip from five to twenty-five miles wide, is an ice plateau, without mountain or valley, from five to ten thousand feet above the sea level. It was across this great ice expanse that Lieutenant Peary made his sledge trips, which were as full of dangerous and exciting experiences as were the boat trips. His delineation of these, which is simple and graphic, forms but a small portion of the record of his experiences and of the work accomplished. He has fully set forth the difficulties overcome before the execution of his plans was possible, given an admirable idea of the extensive preparation made for the expeditions, and carefully explained the methods by which he secured information especially valuable to the scientist. Facts pertaining to the flora and fauna of the country and to the habits and customs of the people are included among the interesting things the author has written. Another delightful feature of the two volumes is the illustrative work. Something like eight hundred illustrations are scattered through the two volumes, and the necessary maps and diagrams are inserted in their proper places. The text is printed in large, clear type on heavy paper and the volumes are encased in handsome blue covers.

There are many who need to learn that it is not chance but persevering effort that brings success to people. Orison Swett Marden in "The Secret of Achievement"† teaches this and much more. He shows that honesty, attention to trifles, self-control, purity, good health, and decision are characteristics to be cultivated, without which real success cannot be achieved. There are also excellent lessons to be learned from the chapters on habit, morality, beneficial results of labor, "Being and Seeming," and "The School of Life." The author has illustrated his statements by hundreds of interesting and inspiring incidents, many of them about well-known people, which stimulate the reader to greater efforts in laying the foundation of a noble character. Several portraits of successful people constitute the illustrations.

The method which Ferdinand Brunetière employs in his work on French literature is one which commends itself to students. He explains in the preface

\*Northward Over the "Great Ice." By Robert E. Peary. With maps, diagrams, and about eight hundred illustrations. Two vols. 601 + 639 pp. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

†The Secret of Achievement. By Orison Swett Marden. Illustrated with portraits of eminent persons. 378 pp. \$1.50. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.



From Robert E. Peary's  
"Northward Over the  
"Great Ice." "

Copyright, 1898, by  
Frederick A. Stokes  
Company.

GREENLAND SMALL BOY.

tory remarks that he has drawn a lesson in classification from the scientist, and instead of making the different literary periods correspond with the centuries, he has taken into consideration distinct occurrences which have had an influence on the development of French literature and on these events based his divisions of literary periods. Consequently the first divisions of French literature are the Middle Ages, the Classic Age, and modern times, and each of these are subdivided into periods of shorter duration. In a clear, cogent way he has shown how French literature has grown from the simple, inconsequent works of the early centuries to the great literature of the present, giving special attention to the causes of transition from one period to another. A very complete bibliography of the subjects treated, including authors and their works, forms the foot-notes throughout the text.\* The illustrations, numbering more than a dozen, are portraits of French writers.

Few men have had such opportunities for studying English life of the present century as George W. E. Russell. Enjoying a wide acquaintance with notable people and with elderly men and women who knew the celebrities of the preceding generation, he has been able to go back in his own

\*Manual of the History of French Literature. By Ferdinand Brunetière. Authorized translation by Ralph Derichef. 596 pp. \$2.00. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

and his friends' memories to the beginning of the century, and in his "Collections and Recollections"\* now presents to the public in book form a fund of interesting information concerning the men and women of the century and the trend of social life. The book is necessarily gossip and anecdotal, and Mr. Russell understands the difficult art of story-telling. His comparison of the England of to-day with that of 1800 is highly instructive, as well as thoroughly optimistic. The book is a crown octavo, bound in ornamental cloth, with deckle edges and gilt top.

"Hawaii and a Revolution"† is the title of a volume written by Mary H. Krout, a journalist representing a Chicago newspaper during the governmental crisis of 1893. The record of her experiences includes a spirited recital of the difficulties overcome before setting sail from San Francisco, a most interesting account of historical events in Hawaii, together with descriptions of the country and of the manners and customs of the people. A trip to New Zealand and Australia was a pleasant diversion which she has also described. The author's style is delightfully fresh and racy and into the narrative she has incorporated that which most interests the reader. The illustrations are excellent and increase the value of the volume.

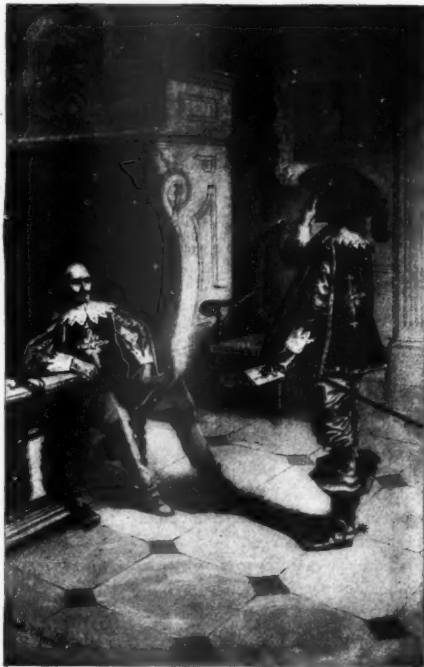
"Twenty Years After"‡ has been added to the Luxembourg series of fictional masterpieces. It is a translation of the latest French edition, and in rendering it into English the author's vivacity and force have been preserved. A few opening pages explain the political situation in France about the middle of the seventeenth century, the time of the opening of the story. Mazarin has succeeded Richelieu and the war of the Fronde is about to be precipitated. The political intrigue and the revolutionary movements of that period form the background of a plot in which D'Artagnan, Aramis, Porthos, and Athos are again important actors, as they were in the first of Dumas' famous trilogy. In make-up this volume has the distinctive features of this series of literary classics. It is provided with a photogravure frontispiece and title-page, and the text is amply illustrated with pictures bearing the signature of Frank T. Merrill. The text is printed on fine paper in clear type, and the volume is substantially bound in artistic covers.

\* Collections and Recollections. By One Who Has Kept a Diary. 375 pp. \$2.50. New York: Harper and Brothers.

† Hawaii and a Revolution. By Mary H. Krout. 344 pp. \$2.00. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

‡ Twenty Years After. By Alexander Dumas. Translated from the latest French edition. 798 pp. \$1.50. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

Since the publication of Sienkiewicz's story of Rome in Nero's time many short tales bearing his signature have been given to the reading world. A new volume has "Sielanka"\* for the title story. It is a forest idyl, simple and pure, which shows the author's skill in graphic delineation. Sienkiewicz's short stories, no less than his long ones, have a spirit, freshness, and power which captivate the



From Alexander Dumas' "Twenty Years After."

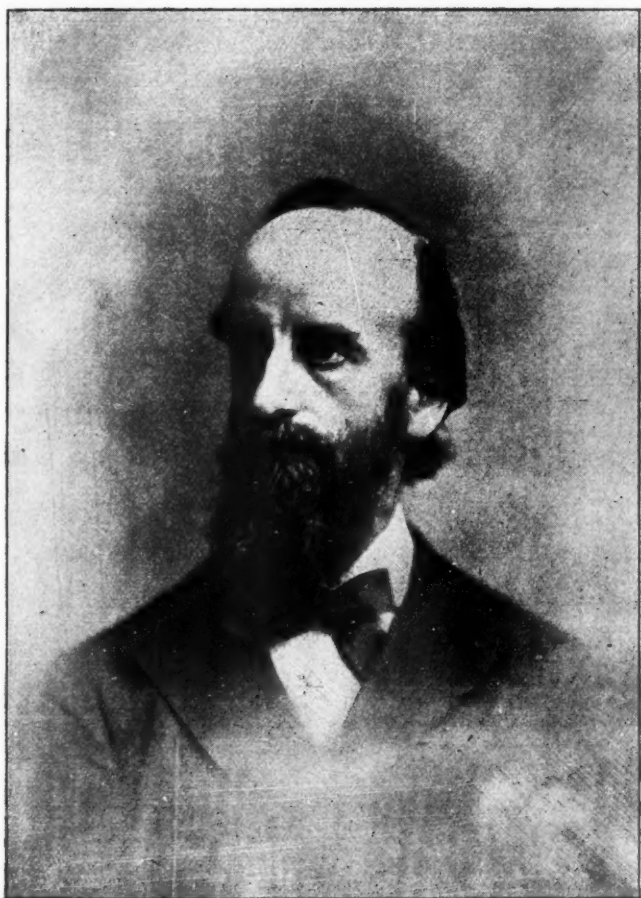
Copyright, 1898, by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

"D'ARTAGNAN TOOK THE LETTER AND PUT HIS HAND TO HIS HAT."

reader. The present volume contains seventeen short tales, sketches, and dramatic works, which are published for the first time in the uniform Library Edition.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature see pages 181-216 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

\* Sielanka: A Forest Picture, and Other Stories. By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Authorized unabridged translation from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. 592 pp. \$2.00. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.



LYMAN ABBOTT, D.D., COUNSELOR OF THE C. L. S. C., PASTOR OF  
PLYMOUTH CHURCH, BROOKLYN.

See "History As It Is Made."